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Travels in Africa, Egypt, and Syria, from the Year 1792 to 1798. By W. G. Browne. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

THIS publication has deservedly engaged much attention. That a gentleman of finished education, and ample fortune, should voluntarily undertake a most difficult and perilous enterprise, that of enlarging our knowledge of interior Africa, is an event scarcely to be paralleled in the annals of scientific adventure. In discoveries which are to be accomplished by means of navigation, the man of science intrusts his fate to the courage and conduct of the commander, and his dangers are shared by all the crew: very different are the hazards in the deserts of Africa, where all the traveller's resources rest on his own courage and conduct, and where all the hazards are leveled at his solitary head. The sacrifices to the cause of science and geography which the present traveller has made, justly entitle him to the highest esteem; and the spirit of his enterprise can only be equaled by the veracity of his descriptions and the modesty of his recital.

In his preface Mr. Browne begins with apologising for any defect of composition; but a person accustomed to think and speak in Arabic for many years, may well be excused for any imperfection of his style; which, however, is always clear, and sometimes elegant: and, as he has done so much, he might also have spared his apology for not doing more. He proceeds to point out the best sources of information that can be found at Cairo; and thus explains the object of his journey from that town.

'The general design of the writer, as will be seen in the sequel, was of such a nature, that, without being extremely sanguine, he might have hoped to execute a considerable part of it. His prospects the first year were darkened by an unexpected disappointment on his arrival at Assuan; concerning which he may say, without any disposition to complaint, that he felt it severely. Another winter

furnished him with a little more information and more experience : but still, as he afterwards unfortunately discovered, by no means all that was necessary to his purpose.

‘ He might have appeared in Dar-Fûr as a Mohammedan, if he had known that the character was necessary to his personal security, or to his unrestrained passage ; but, from the accounts he received in Kahira, among the people of Soûdan no violent animosity was exhibited against Christians. The character of the converts to Mohammedism, among the black nations, was, according to the general voice of the Egyptians who travelled among them, mild and tolerant. A disposition so generally acknowledged, that the more zealous among the latter are little scrupulous in honouring them with the appellation of Caffre. His surprise therefore was not inconsiderable at finding, on his arrival, that an unbeliever in the infallibility of the Korân was more openly persecuted, and more frequently insulted, than in Kahira itself.

‘ The information received, previously to his departure in 1793, taught the writer to expect, from having chosen the route of what is called the Soudân caravan, the choice of a free passage to Sennaar, which would, without much doubt, have secured him an entrance into Habbesh, under the conduct of the Fungni, who trade there : for the Fûrian monarch, had his favour not been withdrawn in consequence of false insinuations, would readily have accorded a safe-conduct through Kordofân, which was all that circumstances required. The being removed a few weeks journey too far to the westward, was no objection, when he reflected on the confusion then reigning at Sennaar, and that in proportion as the road he took was indirect, the less suspicion would be entertained of him as a Frank, the greater experience he must acquire among the people of the interior, and the more easily he might be suffered to pass as a mere trader.

‘ He had been taught, that the expeditions in quest of slaves, undertaken by the people of Fûr and its neighbourhood, extended often forty or more days to the southward. This, at the lowest computation, gave a distance of five degrees on a meridian, and the single hope of penetrating so much farther southward than any preceding traveller, was worth an effort to realize. He owns, he did not then foresee all the inconveniences of being exposed, on the one hand, to the band of plunderers whom he was to accompany, and on the other, to the just resentment of the wretched victims whom they were to enthrall. Perhaps those very evils were magnified greatly beyond their real value by the Fûrians to whom he applied, and who were predetermined not to allow him to pass.

‘ Another inducement to this route was, that part of it was represented to lie along the banks of the Bahr-el-abiad, which he had always conceived to be the true Nile, and which apparently no European had ever seen. To have traced it to its source was rather to be wished than expected ; but he promised himself to reach a

part of it near enough to that source, to enable him to determine in what latitude and direction it was likely to exist. It is unnecessary to observe, that, had either of these objects been realized, much interesting matter must have occurred in the course of the route. He could not in the sequel discover that the armed expeditions of the Fûrians extend to any high reaches of the Bahr-el-abiad.

‘ Another object, perhaps in the eyes of some the most important of the three, was to pass to one or more of the extended and populous empires to the westward. Africa, to the north of the Niger, as is certified from the late discoveries, is almost universally Mohammedan; and to have been well received among one of the nations of that description, would have been a strong presumption in favour of future efforts. He expected in that road to have seen part of the Niger, and even though he had been strictly restrained to the direct road from Dar-Fûr through Bornou, and thence to Fezzan and Tripoli, an opportunity must have offered of verifying several important geographical positions, and observing many facts worthy remembrance relative to commerce and general manners; or, if those designs had entirely failed, at least of marking a rough outline of the route, and facilitating the progress of some future traveller.’ P. xiii.

Our traveller then mentions some important papers which were lost at Alexandria, perhaps when the French seized that city; and he gives an account of the now interrupted intercourse between Egypt and Abyssinia. That Bruce had been at Gondar, had been favoured by the king, and intrusted with the government of the province of Ras-el-Fil, Mr. Browne found to be true; but all his informants agreed that Bruce never had visited the Abyssinian source of the Nile.

This intelligence surprised us, as that vaunting voyager is so minute in his account of that source; but we were still more surprised, on looking into Hartmann's *Edrisi*, to find that Bruce's account is an impudent plagiarism, a mere translation from that of Pays, who wrote a hundred years before *he* was born*. It is no wonder then that the judicious Hartmann should characterise Bruce as having often substituted falsehood for truth, as sometimes self-contradictory, and as boasting of learning which he did not possess. The contrast indeed between Bruce and our present traveller is striking. Bruce visited the well-known country of Abyssinia, and described the well-known *false* source of the Nile, with all the self-importance of another Columbus! He was so ignorant as to mistake the Astapus of the ancients for the real Nile* (though D'Anville had warned travellers to the contrary), and to suppose that

* *Edrisi Africa* à Hartmann, ed. 2. Göttingæ 1796, 8vo. p. 13—21.—The account of Pays, a Portuguese, may be found in Kircher, *Cædip. Æg.* p. 57. and Ludolf, *Comm.* p. 122.

a country, visited by a hundred travellers, from the time of Alvarez † (A. D. 1520) to the present century, was an unknown region. Pillaging on all hands, but chiefly from Tellez and Ludolf, he spun out his work into five quarto volumes, while the real novelties which it contained would not have filled a hundred pages; yet so imposing was his manner, as to deceive the most careful inquirers and the most accurate judges ‡. Mr. Browne, on the contrary, discovers an empire before unknown and unvisited, and presents us with continual novelties, narrated with the same modest veracity as if he were merely describing a journey from London to York.

The preface is closed with some observations on the causes of error in African geography, and an apology for some innovations in orthography, calculated to produce more of the real oriental form and sound, as Kahira for Cairo, &c.

We will now give a general idea of this important journey.

Mr. Browne arrived in Egypt on the 10th of January, 1792. About a month afterwards he proceeded to Siwa, in the desert, in order to discover the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon. He returned to Alexandria, and thence repaired to Rashid, or Rosetto, and to the Natron lakes. The capital of Egypt, and the singular government of that country, were the next objects of his attention, and are described with great care and ability; his skill in the Arabic, and access to the beys, having furnished him with many new facts and observations.

Intending to penetrate into Abyssinia, he began his voyage up the Nile, in October, 1792; and his description of Upper Egypt, unvisited by Volney and Savary, forms a very interesting feature of his book. At Assuan, or Syene, he found that a war had broken out between the beys of Upper Egypt and the cachef of Ibrim; and, all further progress being precluded by that unforeseen event, he was constrained to return.

From Ghenné he visited Cossir, a port on the Red Sea. Some recent occurrences at Kahira occupy the next chapter; which is followed by a curious dissertation on the persons and complexion of the ancient Egyptians, demonstrating that they were not negroes, as Volney conjectured, with no less absurdity than when he attempted to prove that Jesus Christ never existed!

* The Abyssinian source is not the real Nile, because it is the shortest branch, and because it never was reputed the Nile, except by the ignorant self-importance of the Abyssinians. With the ancients it is *quite a different river running into the Nile*; and the Arabian authors confirm this fact.

† Alvarez was about six years in Abyssinia, and knew just as much of the country as Bruce. See his travels (Spanish translation, 1557, f. v. 206.), for the origin of the Astapus in the country of Goyam: 'Nascia en el reyno de Goyame,' &c.

‡ While D'Anville always contended for the source of the Nile being farther to the south and the west, the concurrent testimony of the Jesuits fixed it in Abyssinia; an opinion confirmed by the general consent of the Egyptians and Abyssinians.

A journey to Feiume is accompanied with an inspection of the lake Moëris, a discussion concerning the Oasis parva, and an account of the pyramids, in which some recent errors concerning those vast edifices are obviated.

In short, no striking peculiarity in Egypt has escaped Mr. Browne's attention; and, even on objects often described, he ever throws the superior light of a more eager inquiry after truth, and a more strict regard to accuracy.

In a short chapter he narrates his journey to Sinai, and his return to Kahira. The ancient canal of Suez, between the Nile and the Red Sea, is examined and discussed.

At length, in May 1793, he commenced his progress into the interior of Africa. Joining the Soudan caravan, he travelled through El-wah, or the Oasis Magna (a region in itself almost unknown to European travellers), and through vast deserts, where many of the camels perished for want of water, till his expedition terminated in the kingdom of Dar-Fur, unvisited before by any European whatever. Six long and interesting chapters present an ample detail concerning this curious and important region; where Mr. Browne was obliged, by the capricious sultan, to remain nearly three years, though he ardently wished to extend his discoveries to the south or west. In March 1796, he was *graciously* permitted to return to Egypt*.

The account of Dar-Fur is followed by a chapter of medical observations, on diseases prevalent in Africa and the east, which are replete with new and original intelligence.

In December 1796, Mr. Browne proceeded from Kahira to Damiatt; and he gives a vivid and entertaining account of this part of Egypt. From Damiatt he sailed to Yaffé, or Joppa; and afterwards visited the most remarkable places of Palestine and Syria; which having been often described, he is contented to offer a few remarks, or details of recent transactions.

After residing some months in Syria, our traveller, by a new route, pierced through the centre of Anatolia, by Kaisaria and Angora, to Constantinople; whence he directed his course to England, and arrived in London on the 16th of September, 1798, after an absence of nearly seven years.

Such is the outline of this journey, which vies with any land-tour described either in ancient or modern times. The learning, the ability, and the singular opportunities of the au-

* It is a remarkable coincidence that, at this very period, Mr. Park was in the *west* of Africa. He left England, May 22, 1795; set out from Pisania, Dec. 1795; and was detained at Benowm, from March to July, 1796. He returned, Sept. 1796, to Kamalia; where he remained till April, 1797; and he arrived at the Gambia in June, 1797; eighteen months having passed from the commencement of his inland tour of discovery.

thor, have severally contributed so much to enrich his pages with new discoveries, or new observations, that his work will ever bear a high rank among books of travels. Long and perilous journeys have often been performed by men incapable of scientific observation; but in this case profound learning and undaunted enterprise combine to produce a work perhaps *unique* in its kind.

From the preceding outline the reader will observe that this publication may properly be considered under two main aspects; 1. The new discoveries in Africa; 2. The account of Egypt and Syria. In this article we mean to confine ourselves to the former.

A Roman compared Africa to a leopard's skin, intimating that it was a mass of sand, spotted with Oases or fertile islands. The timidity of Volney led him to infer that even a visit to the two Oases next Egypt (Parva and Magna) was now impracticable. Mr. Browne, however, commenced his career by a journey to a more remote Oasis, that of Ammon.

'When the Arabs had finished the business on which they came to the city, and had fixed on an hour, as they thought, auspicious to travellers, they made ready for departure; and on Friday, 24th February 1792, we left Alexandria.' The inclinations of my conductors were in unison with mine, in the choice of a route; for they preferred that nearest the sea, for the sake of forage for their camels, which abounds there more than in the direct road; and I preferred it, as being the same that Alexander had chosen for the march of his army.

'We travelled the first day only about eight miles*, in which space several foundations of buildings are discoverable; but so imperfect are the remains, that it is not possible to say whether they were antient or modern, or to what purpose they might have been applied. From that time till Sunday, 4th March, our route lay along the coast, and we were never long together out of sight of the sea. The coast is plain; and after having left the neighbourhood of Alexandria, where it is rocky, the soil is generally smooth and sandy. Many spots of verdure, particularly at this season, relieve the eye from the effect of general barrenness: and though the vegetation be very inconsiderable, the greater part of it consisting only of different kinds of the glasswort, or kali, it offers a seasonable relief to the suffering camel. For our horses we were obliged to carry a constant supply of barley and cut straw.

'There are several kinds of preserved meat prepared among the orientals for long journies. They obviate the inconveniency of salt provision by using clarified butter. The kind most used is called mishli, and will keep good for many years. It is brought from Western Barbary to Kahira.

'In the places where we generally rested are found the jerboa,

* 'The miles spoken of are always geographical.'

the tortoise, the lizard, and some serpents, but not in great number. There is also an immense quantity of snails attached to the thorny plants on which the camels feed. These the Arabs frequently eat. Very few birds were visible in this quarter, except of the marine kind. One of our party killed a small hawk, which was the only one I saw. Near the few springs of water are found wild rabbits, which in Arabic they distinguish by the same name as the hare, (ارنب) and the track of the antelope and the ostrich are frequently discoverable. We passed no day without being incommoded with frequent showers; and generally a cold wind from north-west and north-west by north. Several small parties of Bedouins, who were feeding a few goats, sheep, and asses, were encamped in the road, and in the vicinity of the lake Mareotis, now dry. Such of them as were the friends of our conductor received us with every mark of hospitality and kindness; and regaled us with milk, dates, and bread newly baked. One party, indeed, became contentious for a present, or tribute on passing; but being in no condition to enforce their demand, it was after a time relinquished. P. 14.

On the 4th, Mr. Browne left the coast; and he arrived at Siwa on the 9th. In his progress he was treated with insult by the fanatic Moors*. He discovered a curious small edifice, evidently an Egyptian temple or chapel, and about thirty catacombs, originally occupied by mummies, since burned by the superstitious natives.

Though the Arabs pass the desert in all directions, from Siwa to El-wah, or the Oasis Magna, and to Fezzan on the other side, Mr. Browne could procure no intelligence of any ruins to the west or south, and not even a hint of the place styled Santaria by D'Anville, where he places the Oasis of Ammon. After a progress of two days to the south of Siwa, he reached Araschié, a small isle in a lake of salt-water, where nothing was found; and, when he had journeyed for another day to the south, he returned.

We are not prepared to investigate the question, whether Siwa be the Ammon of the ancients, or whether that celebrated fane must be explored at a greater distance to the S. W. Arrian, the most exact of Alexander's biographers, describes the Oasis of Ammon as about five miles broad (ἑξ τεσσαράκοντα μάλιστα σταδίου); and mentions a hot and cold spring; circumstances agreeing with Mr. Browne's account. He states the distance to Parætonium on the coast; but omits the chief difficulty, that from the coast to Ammon. Ptolemy, son of Lagus, says, that Alexander returned from Ammon to

* The Moors, besides fanaticism, have another cause of hatred against the Franks. They cannot forget or forgive the expulsion of many of their ancestors from Spain. REV.

Memphis, as the nearest way ; a circumstance inapplicable to D'Anville's Santaria.

The curious reader may also inspect Herodotus, Strabo, Pliny, and Ptolemy ; but the matter would require a separate dissertation. Suffice it to observe that the radical error of the last-mentioned geographer is an amplification of the latitudes and longitudes of the parts little known, from those that were known.

D'Anville seems to have derived his Santaria from Abulfeda. Hartmann's Edrisi may also be consulted, p. 302, 303, and p. 497, 498. As Siwa, a memorable Oasis, is unmentioned by these Arabian geographers, we strongly suspect that it is the place called Santaria in their time ; for one great cause of error in African geography arises from repeated changes of names, as one roving tribe happens to expel another, &c.—and, upon the whole, it seems most likely that Siwa is the real Ammon, and the edifice discovered by Mr. Browne a remain of that temple *.

We now proceed to the most important of Mr. Browne's discoveries, that of the empire of Dar-Fur. The name of this region first reached European ears, in 1790, from Mr. Ledyard's communications to the African society ; and it accordingly appears, in major Rennel's map, *Darfoor*.

It was a fortunate fatality that Mr. Browne was prevented from passing into Abyssinia, as, though his accuracy might have corrected many of Bruce's errors, and his knowledge have thrown additional light on some circumstances, yet that country has been so frequently described, that little new could arise. Ludolf alone presents almost as ample an account of that empire as Camden does of Great-Britain ; and nothing can be more wild than the supposition that a journey to Abyssinia may prove a journey of discovery. With Tellez and Ludolf, the reader may travel all over Abyssinia in his arm-chair ; and the latest discoveries have added very little to Ludolf's map, which presents the *false* source of the Nile, just as Bruce thought proper to *borrow* it.

The journey to Dar-Fur, on the contrary, was one of real and important discovery ; and it has rendered more essential service to the geography of Africa, than any attempted since the great discoveries of the Portuguese. So strong and clear a light is thrown on the eastern part of that continent, that future travellers will find the same advantages of previous intelligence, that posterior navigators found in repeating the route of Columbus.

Leaving Assiut in Egypt, on the 25th of May, with the Soudan caravan of Jelabs or slave-merchants, Mr. Browne

* Perhaps the lives of the Fathers of the Desert (the Egyptian hermits), published by Rosweyd, &c. might afford hints in an inquiry of this kind.

passed the rocky ridge composed of tufa, which separates Egypt from the desert, and arrived at Ainé Dizé, the northern extremity of the great Oasis, which he pervaded to its southern extremity at Mughefs.

On the 13th we employed two hours in passing from Beiris to Mughefs, the last village of the Oasis toward the south: in desert. We left Mughefs on the morning of the 15th, and on Thursday the 20th, in the morning, arrived at Sheb. At this place, by digging to the depth of a few feet in the sand, is found a supply of indifferent water. A tribe of the wandering Arabs, called Ababde, who come from the neighbourhood of the Nile, sometimes infests it. Sheb is marked by the production of a great quantity of native alum, as the name imports. The surface, near which the alum is found, abounds with a reddish stone; and in many places is seen argillaceous earth. Having left Sheb on the 21st, we arrived at Selimé on the 23d. This is a small verdant spot, at the foot of a ridge of rocks of no great height, nor apparently extending very far. It affords the best water of any place on the route; but though there be verdure enough to relieve the eye from the dry sterility of the surrounding surface, it affords no vegetable fit for the support either of man or beast. At Selime is a small building, which has apparently been raised by some of the tribes resting there, that place being much frequented by the roving parties passing the desert in different directions. The building consists only of loose stones, but the jelabs related many fables concerning it; as that it had of old been inhabited by a princess who, like the Amazons, drew the bow, and wielded the battle-axe, with her own hand; that she was attended by a large number of followers, who spread terror all over Nubia, &c.; and that her name was Selimé.

On the 24th we rested, and having proceeded the following morning, employed five days more in reaching Leghea. Water there is scarce, and far inferior in quality to that of Selimé, having a brackish taste. The camels throughout the caravan began now to be excessively weak and jaded, and the chabir was at a loss for the true road: for though several persons in the caravan had traversed this desert ten or twelve times, they were not unfrequently unable to determine which was the right course. One of the party was sent forward to discover some known object that might be our guide, and after having been absent thirty-six hours he returned. While we remained here we felt much inconvenience from a suffocating wind that blew from the south, and raised the sand in clouds. On the 2d of July the caravan left Leghea; and on the eighth, after a severe and fatiguing march, reached the Bir-el-Malha or salt spring. The vicinity of this spring is remarkable for the production of natron, which substance appears under different circumstances, and is of different quality from that of Terané. It is very white and solid; and on immersion in water becomes hot, and discharges a great portion of its air.

‘ Small quantities of it are carried by the jelabs to Egypt, where it is sold at a high price, and is used principally in making snuff. The water found at this place is very unpalatable, being brackish.

‘ A troop of the natives of Zeghawa met us at this well. It is their practice to station a small party there, when caravans are expected, who remunerate themselves for the fatigue of a ten days journey by supplying provisions, and what else may be wanted by travellers, at an exorbitant rate. Many of our companions at this time had great need of their assistance, as their supply had been originally insufficient, and many camels had perished on the road. The vicinity of the Bir-el-Malha is occasionally infested by the Cubba-Beesh, a wandering tribe, who, mounted on the swiftest dromedaries, rapidly traverse the desert, and live by plundering the defenceless. As they are, however, unfurnished with fire-arms, so numerous a body as ours was not in much danger from their attack.

‘ We remained at the Bir-el-Malha till the 12th; on which day we left that place, and travelled with little interruption till the 20th, and then encamped at a spot called Medwa, where however is no supply of water. One of my camels having fallen, we were obliged to purchase water of the Mahréa Arabs whom we met, or to take up what had lodged in cavities on the earth, in consequence of the rains which were then beginning to fall.

‘ On the 23d we came to the first springs within the limits of Fûr, which are in this place called Wadi Mafrûk. The white ant, termitis, was here exceedingly vexatious, building his covered way to every thing within the tent, and destroying all within his reach. This together with the rains, which were now increasing, and began to pour in a torrent through the valley, obliged us to abandon the tents, and take shelter in the next village, (Sweini,) where I obtained an apartment in the house of Ali-el-Chatib, one of the principal merchants established in the country. In it I passed eight or ten days, not having arrived at Cobbé, one of the towns whither the jelabs chiefly resort, till the seventh of August.’ p. 186.

Mr. Browne has given a plain and candid account of the treatment which he experienced in Dar-Fur, where an European, then first seen, was regarded as some extraordinary monster. The extortion of the sultan Abdelrahman, and of the meleks, or chief men, knew no bounds; and they were aided by the villany of Mr. Browne's Egyptian servants. His conversation with the melek Misellim we will select.

“ Melek,” said I, “ having come from a far distant country to Misr, (Kahira,) I was there made acquainted with the magnificence, the extended empire, and, above all, the justice and hospitality of the king Abd-el-rachmân, whose dominion be eternal! Having been used to wander over various countries as a derwish, to learn wisdom from the aged, and to collect remedies for diseases from the

herbs that spring in various soils, I grew desirous of seeing Dar-Fûr. I was told that my person and property would be secure, and that permission would be given me to go wherever I might think proper. Since my arrival within the confines, I have found that all these assurances were fallacious; my inclinations have been thwarted, my person treated with indignity, and my property plundered, while compliance has been refused even to my most reasonable demands. I ask redress.—What I have already suffered from the officers of the sultan is passed, and cannot now be remedied, but I desire protection for the future. I desire the punishment of the man who has robbed me, and restitution of what has been taken. Nor is this all, I particularly desire permission to go to Sennaar, in order to proceed to Habbesh. I was prevented from going there last year by the straight road, Habbesh is a Christian country, abounding in slaves and gold. There are also many herbs valuable in medicine. Being there, I may easily join my countrymen, merchants who come to Moccha, in the Bahr Yemeni. I desire the sultan will allow me to proceed thither: and, if it be necessary, grant me his protection, and three or four persons, deserving confidence, to attend me to the frontiers of Kordofân. I have a small present to offer him, consisting of such things as my circumstances permitted me to bring—I hope he may not refuse to receive it, and to grant me the favour I ask.” He answered—“Merchant, you are welcome to the Dar—The king is kind to strangers, and he will favour you in all you wish. Whatever you want you have only to demand. He has ordered a sack of wheat and four sheep to be sent you.—At this time it is not possible to pass through Kordofân—The sultan has a great army there, and when the country shall be in subjection to him you may pass unmolested. When you are admitted to his presence, you will tell him who has robbed you, and what you have lost, and he will cause it to be restored.” It was now the hour of prayer, and when the company commenced their ablutions I retired.’ P. 198.

For the interesting detail of his adventures we must refer to the work; but we will extract his account of an interview with the sultan.

‘At another of my visits I found him in the interior court, standing, with a long staff tipped with silver in his right hand, on which he leaned, and the sword in his left. He then had chosen to adorn his head with the folds of a red silk turban, composed of the same material as the western Arabs use for a cincture. The Melek Ibrahim presented him, in my name, with a small piece of silk and cotton, of the manufacture of Damascus. He returned answer, *Barak ulla fi!*—May the blessing of God be on him!—a phrase in general use on receiving any favour, and instantly retired, without giving me time to urge the request of which I intended the offering should be the precursor. It is expected of all persons that, on coming to El Fasher, they should bring with them

a present of greater or less value, according to the nature of the business in hand. It is no less usual before leaving the royal residence, to ask permission of the sultan for that purpose. With this latter form, which was to me unpleasant, I sometimes complied, but more frequently omitted it. But on this occasion, having been long resident there, I thought fit to make a last effort to promote my design. The day preceding that which I had fixed for my return happened to be a great public audience. I found the monarch seated on his throne (*cûrsî*), under a lofty canopy, composed not of one material, but of various stuffs of Syrian and even of Indian fabric, hung loosely on a light frame of wood, no two pieces of the same pattern. The place he sat in was spread with small Turkey carpets. The Meleks were seated at some distance on the right and left, and behind them a line of guards, with caps, ornamented in front with a small piece of copper and a black ostrich feather. Each bore a spear in his hand, and a target of the hide of the hippopotamus on the opposite arm. Their dress consisted only of a cotton shirt, of the manufacture of the country. Behind the throne were fourteen or fifteen eunuchs, clothed indeed splendidly in habiliments of cloth or silk, but clumsily adjusted, without any regard to size or colour. The space in front was filled with suitors and spectators, to the number of more than fifteen hundred. A kind of hired encomiast stood on the monarch's left hand, crying out, *a plein gorge*, during the whole ceremony, "See the buffaloe (*جاموس*), the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan Abd-ël-rachmân-el-rashîd! May God prolong thy life!—O master—May God assist thee, and render thee victorious!"

From this audience, as from those which had preceded it, I was obliged to retire as I had come, without effecting any purpose. I was told there were occasions when the sultan wears a kind of crown, as is common with other African monarchs; but of this practice I had no opportunity to bear testimony. When he appeared in public, a number of troops armed with light spears usually attended him, and several of his slaves were employed to bear a kind of umbrella over his head, which concealed his face from the multitude. When he passes, all the spectators are obliged to appear barefooted, and commonly to kneel—His subjects bow to the earth, but this compliance is not expected from foreigners. Even the Meleks, when they approach the throne, creep on their hands and knees, which gave occasion to an Egyptian to remark, that the *jareâ* * in Fûr was a Melek, and the Melek a *jareâ*—alluding to the servile behaviour of the ministers, and the publicity of women in the domestic offices of the palace.

The sultan Abd-el-rachmân, soon after he became possessed of sovereign authority, with the ostensible motive of testifying his attachment to the religion of the prophet, but more perhaps with a

* 'A female slave.'

view of obtaining greater weight among his subjects, by some mark of the consideration of the first of Mohammedan princes, thought proper to send a present to Constantinople. It consisted of three of the choicest eunuchs, and three of the most beautiful female slaves that could be procured. The Othman emperor, when they were presented, had, it is said, never heard of the sultan of Dar-Fûr, but he returned an highly-ornamented sabre, a rich pelisse, and a ring set with a single diamond of no inconsiderable value.' P. 212.

In his second chapter concerning Dar-Fur, our author gives further details of his adventures in that country, his plans to penetrate still farther into Africa, and the tyrannic conduct of Abdelrahman, who would not permit him to leave the kingdom, but, finding an European very useful, constrained him to act as a physician, because he had some medicines in his chest for his own use. After a long delay, he at length returned to Egypt, by the same caravan-route that had led him to Dar-Fur.

In the next chapter he gives the topography of Dar-Fur, and an account of its various inhabitants. This subject is illustrated by a good map; and there is another map, of superior beauty and accuracy, representing the general route and discoveries; in which we observe a great geographic improvement, that of marking the names not absolutely ascertained by dotted letters; by which frequent errors in inspecting maps, where certainty and uncertainty have hitherto been confounded, may be prevented.

Other chapters contain instructions on the mode of travelling in Africa, and an account of the animals, metals, minerals, and vegetables, of Dar-Fur. Then follow the government and history of that kingdom; its agriculture, population, manners and customs, revenue and commerce; and the description is closed with miscellaneous observations.

So new, various, and important, are the subjects discussed in these chapters, that we must refer the inquisitive reader to the work itself, and shall content ourselves with an extract from the last.

'A king, of the name of Abli-calik, is the idol of the people of Kordofân, where he reigned about fourteen years ago, and is renowned for probity and justice. The kings of Kordofân had been deputed by the mecque of Sennaar, till after the death of the son of Abli-calik, when it was usurped by Fûr, in consequence of the weakness and dissensions of the government at Sennaar.

'The people of Kordofân are reported to be not only indifferent to the amours of their daughters and sisters, but even attached to their seducers. The father or brother will even draw the sword against him who offends the refik, or companion of his daughter or

fister. Very different is the mode of thinking in Sennaar, where immodesty is only permitted among the female slaves. The chief merchants have companies of these slaves, and derive great profit from their prostitution.

‘ Afnou, a country beyond Bornou to the westward, is said to produce such abundance of silver, that the natives construct defensive armour of that metal. The coats of mail are jointed, and represented as very beautiful. Of the same material, it is reported, are made pieces to protect the head and breast of their horses, the former having the chaffron, or horn, known in our days of chivalry.

‘ Among the southern countries, whither the Jelabs of Bergoo and Fûr sometimes journey to procure slaves, is Dar Kulla. The chief article they carry to Kulla is salt, twelve pounds of which are estimated as the price of a male slave, sedasé, about twelve or fourteen years of age. A female brings three pounds more, whimsically computed by the natives, as, a pound for the girl’s eyes, another for her nose, and a third for her ears. If copper be the medium, two rotals are esteemed equal to four of salt. Hoddûr, a large sort of Venetian glass beads, and tin, are in great esteem. Of the latter they make rings and other ornaments.

‘ The natives of Kulla are represented as partly negroes, partly of a red or copper colour. Their language is nasal, but very simple and easy. It is said they worship idols. They are very cleanly, to which the abundance of water in their country contributes: and they are remarkable for honesty, and even punctilious in their transactions with the Jelabs.

‘ They have ferry-boats on the river, which are impelled partly by poles, partly by a double oar, like our canoes. Slaves are obtained in Dar Kulla either by violence, Selatêa, or by the following method. In that country the smallest trespass on the property of another, is punished by enslaving the children or young relations of the trespasser. If even a man’s footstep be observed among the corn of another, the circumstance is attended by calling witnesses, and application to a magistrate, and the certain consequence of proof is the forfeiture of his son, daughter, nephew, or niece, to the person trespassed on. These accidents are continually happening, and produce a great number of slaves. A commission to purchase any thing in a distant market, not exactly fulfilled, is attended with a like forfeiture. But above all, if a person of note die, the family have no idea of death as a necessary event, but say that it is effected by witchcraft. To discover the perpetrator, the poorer natives, far and near, are obliged to undergo expurgation by drinking a liquor which is called in Dar-Fûr kilingi, or something that resembles it; and the person on whom the supposed signs of guilt appear, may either be put to death, or sold as a slave.

‘ The people of Kulla are strangers to venereal complaints, but are subject to the small-pox. In that part of the country which is visited by the Jelabs there is a king; the rest is occupied by small

tribes, each of which is ruled by the chief who happens to have most influence at the time. The kumba, or pimento tree, is found there in such plenty, that a rotal or pound of salt will purchase four or five mid, each mid about a peck.

‘ The trees are so large, from the quantity of water and deep clay, that canoes are hollowed out of them sufficiently capacious to contain ten persons.

‘ It was related to me by Jelabs who have visited that country, that the inhabitants of Dar Bergoo make war by sudden incursions, traversing and laying waste a large space in a short time. They leave their women behind, and are thus better adapted to military operations than the Fûrians, who follow an opposite practice, never marching without a host of attendant females. The people of Bergoo seldom make Selatêa.

‘ Some of the idolatrous nations, dependent on Bergoo, are represented as making war in a very formidable manner. The combatants never retreat; and the women behind light a fire, in which they heat the heads of the spears, and exchange them for such as are cooled in the combat. They also use poisoned weapons.

‘ There is a remote part of the pagan country, from which slaves are brought, which the Arabs distinguish by the term Gnum Gnum, (a sobriquet,) whose inhabitants eat the flesh of the prisoners they take in war. I have conversed with slaves who came thence, and they admit the fact. These people are also in the habit of stripping off the skin of the hands and faces of their slaughtered foes, which afterwards undergo some preparation, and are worn as a mark of triumph. Their arms, a spear or javelin, are of iron, wrought by themselves. After having heated them to redness, they stick the point into the trunk of a particular tree, and there leave the weapon till the juice has dried on. In this manner it acquires, as is reported, a most deadly poison.’ P. 307.

The itineraries, published in the Appendix, form an important supplement to this chapter, and conspire with the account of Dar-Fur to dart such an illumination on the east of Africa, that we must be permitted to avail ourselves of this fair occasion, in giving a few remarks on the geography of the middle region of that continent.

That middle region extends about four thousand miles in length from Cape Verd to Cape Gardafui. On the north it is bounded by sandy deserts; on the south, so far as it has been explored, by a lofty ridge of mountains, whence flow the Senegal river, the Joliba, Niger, Nile, &c.

To the Portuguese we owe the eastern discoveries of Abyssinia, &c. On the west the French were the chief penetrators: Govinea, known to them, is five hundred miles inland. Mr. Park's route added about five hundred miles more. We must smile, therefore, when major Rennel speaks of future discoveries as mere supplements to those of Mr. Park!

On the east, the Portuguese discoveries pierce about a thousand miles; those of Mr. Browne extend to Dar-Kulla, &c. about eight hundred more. A space of twelve hundred miles, in the centre, remains to be ascertained.

We cannot congratulate the members of the African society on the display of knowledge and judgement in this research. They seem to have heard so much of able-bodied men, that this appears to have been deemed by them the sole requisite in the hired adventurers. The only two points, *indispensable*, really are, 1. To engage sensible Mohammedans, or to send out travellers with every external badge of that religion, and an apparent fanaticism in its favour: 2. To employ persons who have a complete knowledge of Arabic, and especially of the Moorish dialect of that tongue. Let such travellers land at Tripoli, and proceed with the caravans to Kaffina or Cashnah, and Tombuctoo; the route which we have constantly recommended.

A shorter route may be followed among the negroes, to the south of the great ridge, from the coast of Benin, in Guinea, or from Calabar, to Cashnah, in the centre of Africa, a distance of only eight hundred miles.

From Mr. Browne's map it is evident that the greatest of living geographers, the learned and respectable major Rennel, has extended the central regions of Africa, Cashnah, Ghana, Wangara, too much to the east. Mr. Browne heard of Zamfara, but not of Wangara. It is possible, after all, that there may be a vast lake, or sea, in the interior of Africa, the termination of Mr. Browne's rivers running from the S. E. by Dar-Kulla, &c. as well as of the Niger. We do not examine whether Mr. Park's Jolliba be the Niger: the Romans passed by Phazzana * to their Niger, which may rise far to the south-east of the Jolliba. Major Rennel gives no routes by Wangara; which may safely be removed five degrees farther to the west.

There are some other lapses of that eminent geographer which it becomes necessary to correct, as they impede our knowledge of Africa. By an unaccountable mistake, which pervades many of his pages, he imagines the Ghinea of Leo to be Ghana in the centre of Africa! Is it possible that he should not have read Leo's work, or that he should have read it without perceiving that his description of interior Africa proceeds, exactly and regularly, from west to east? All geographers, preceding Rennel, uniformly understand this. Leo's Ghinea is our Guinea. Our great geographer has so perplexed himself in this error, that it leads him to confound ideas

* Ptolemy's *Gir* (perhaps *Ni Gir*, or *Nyrip*, may mean the *Gir* with some epithet) appears to be Mr. Browne's large river of Dar-Kulla, which rising near the real source of the Nile gave cause to the fables of the Arabs that confound the *Gir* with the Nile. Ptolemy's map of interior Africa will in the end be found the most exact.

totally discordant. Leo *thought* that the Niger fell into the western ocean; and that *thus* people might pass to Guinea from Tombuctoo. Rennel infers that this western ocean is a mediterranean lake! Leo expressly places Ghinea to the *west* of Tombuctoo, Rennel far to the *east*!

That Leo's Cano (really Ghana) should be the little town of Ganat is another odd mistake. Leo styles Cano 'a great province*.'

It is equally erroneous to suppose that Leo's Melli is the Lamlem of Edrisi. It is the country called Kong in Rennel's map.

Our space will not permit us to indicate many minute circumstances, scattered in Leo's book, which confirm these positions. We can only advise the ingenious major to *read* books, instead of merely *consulting* them. One detached sentence, in an unexplored corner, may overturn a hundred *consultations*.

Leo knew most of the west of Africa, as being born or having studied at Fez; and Edrisi of the east; whence the latter was styled the Nubian geographer. Edrisi says nothing of the western part of interior Africa: he begins with Mekzara towards the centre, the isle of Ulil, and Tocrur, both belonging to Mekzara; and afterwards proceeds eastward. He wrote in Sicily, in the 12th century; Abulfeda in the 14th; Yacuti or Bakui in the 15th century†; Leo in the 16th.

Major Rennel supposes that the Venetian Cadamosto wrote in the 15th century: and, indeed, he expressly assigns him to the year 1455. If the major could not have recourse to the first edition of Cadamosto's voyages, printed at Venice in 1507, he might at least have consulted the old Latin translation, in that common book, the *Novus Orbis* of Grynæus. He would there have found, that Cadamosto left Venice in 1504, in the twenty-first year of his age, and that he sailed to Africa in March 1505.

In his quotations from Cadamosto, the major is equally erroneous. Hoden, which Cadamosto places 6 *diætas*, or days, from Cape Blanco, with Rennel is 18; Tegazza, 6 days from Hoden, is made 24 in the map, &c.

Cadamosto is, we believe, the earliest author who mentions Tambut, or Tombuctoo, and Melli; 'Ferunt etiam Tagazam

* Hartmann, p. 46, rightly says that the Cano of Leo and Marmol is, *beyond all doubt*, Ghana.

Leo, lib. i. says that Gualata borders upon the ocean; and expresses his idea that, the Niger falling into that ocean (by Senegal and Gambia, its supposed mouths), people could sail from Tombuctoo to Guinea. For the boundaries of the kingdoms his account of the deserts, lib. vi. ought also to be examined.

His five kingdoms far to the south, lib. i. Bito, Temiam, Dauma, Medra, Gorham, are still unascertained.

† Published in the Extracts of MSS. in the French king's library.

a Tambuto abesse itinere dierum quadraginta equitis unius et inter Tambutam et regnum Mellis iter triginta dierum intercedit.* He particularly says that Melli was far to the south, near the equinoctial line; and Rennel has again consulted, and not read. His Melli is Leo's Melli, S. W. of Tombuctoo: our great living geographer will have all commerce carried on in direct lines.

This leads us to remark, in general, that the learned major's bibliography of Africa is very incomplete. Marmol, and twenty others, are not mentioned or used. We only know, by the title, Jannequin's *Voyage de Lybie au Royaume de Senegal le long du Niger*, Paris, 1643, 8vo; but we suppose that it may be useful.

In a more immediate view to the subject of this article, it may be observed, that Mr. Browne's discoveries evince the fallacy of major Rennel's ideas concerning the centre of Africa. The major extends the eastern limit of his Wangara, and his Libyan lake, or grand receptacle of the Niger, to 22° E. of Greenwich. Mr. Browne's map, even at 18° , only indicates rivers running to the N. W.

In their ignorance of the country, the Arabian geographers, finding that a new route or discovery had disclosed another kingdom to the east, we will suppose, of one formerly known, immediately made it conterminous, though it may be a thousand miles from it. Thus Gaoga, or Kauga, in Leo, is put conterminous with Nubia, the capital of which he says is Dongola! He annihilates four kingdoms, Baghermee, Bergoo, Dar-Fur, and Kordofan! In like manner whole kingdoms, and vast spaces, may be annihilated in the centre.

If we may be indulged in a mere conjecture, on a subject totally unknown, we would hint that the central geography of Africa seems to us to present the following features. From 14 to 16 degrees E. of Greenwich may be the breadth of a lake, or sea, which may extend far to the south, where the belt of mountains may recede in that direction. In this sea, one day's sail from the mouth of the Niger (which flows into its western side), stands the isle Ulil; in which Ebn-Al-Wardi places the capital city of all Soudan, and which has so perplexed major Rennel (p. lxviii). See Edrifi (p. 28, 29), who mentions the one day's sail, and the cities and kingdoms into which salt was imported from the isle of Ulil*.

On the west of this sea we will suppose Mekfara, then Ghana; and, between the mouths of the Niger, Wangara, an alluvial country, and styled an island by Edrifi, as resembling the Delta. On the north of this sea is Cashnah; and Zam-

* This sea is not the Libya Palus of Ptolemy, but his central lake. Ulil is perhaps his capital, *Gira Metropolis*.

fara is on the N. W. adjacent to Bornou. On the S. W. Guber is situated.

To the east of this sea may be a space, of some hundred miles in breadth, totally unknown, being out of the route of any caravan. It may be a desert, like that on the east of a similar sea, the Caspian; and there may be a smaller sea (the Libyan marsh of Ptolemy), which, like the lake of Aral, may receive the rivers, running from the S. E. to the N. W. as described by Mr. Browne.

In this desert may be some fertile regions, remote both from the Moorish conquests, and the course of the caravans; such as Afnou, mentioned by Mr. Browne, towards the west of Bornou, where silver is so abundant. Yet Afnou, as appears from major Rennel's Memoir, p. xc. is a general name for Soudan, Nigritia, or the country of the blacks, used among the negroes themselves. Mr. Browne's Afnou is, however, sufficiently specified by the great abundance of silver.

The discovery of interior Africa is in itself so important to geography, and has recently excited so much public curiosity, that our mite, we flatter ourselves, will not prove unacceptable. In a future article we shall review, with more brevity, Mr. Browne's account of Egypt and Syria.

History of Scotland, from the earliest Times, to the Æra of the Abolition of the Hereditary Jurisdictions of Subjects, in the Year 1748. By Robert Heron. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

WE have already given a brief account of the first part of this work *, and shall not much enlarge upon the remainder, as the author has seldom brought forward any new fact, but has extended the publication to great length by verbose disquisitions on objects either extraneous or generally known. One would imagine that he was no stranger to the barbarous law phrase used in Scotland, *multum scribere, multum solvere*; for no writer, paid by the page, could be more discursive and prolix, or produce more foliage with less fruit.

The second part, which completes the first volume, extends from the accession of Malcolm Canmore to the death of Alexander III. In this we should have expected frequent references to the Annals of Sir D. Dalrymple; but Mr. Heron refers to the works quoted by sir David. This is unfair; for every author should use his own labour, or acknowledge the assistance that has spared it. What can be called plagiarism, if this be not? It is true, that the sources are open to all; but when a man has, with the labour of years, collected the essence of these sources, it is illiberal and unjust for another to snatch the

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XII, p. 67.

wreath from his brow, and, by the slight attention of a few weeks, appropriate to himself the toils of his predecessor. This practice would not be permitted in any other department; and it is a great object of law to guard the slow acquisitions of industry from rapid invasion. As judges in a court of reputation, it is our duty to reprobate any tendency to this injustice.

As a specimen of Mr. Heron's vague and verbose manner of writing and quoting, so remote from the nature of history, the very essence of which is truth and precision, we will extract some paragraphs from the first volume.

' The king was the supreme lord of all his subjects. To him every individual in the kingdom owed obedience, in all cases which were not excepted by the laws or by the principles of the constitution. Bondmen, and the vassals of subject lords, could not lawfully perform any services to their immediate masters, which might prove injurious to the authority, or the personal security of the monarch. Rebellion against the king, instantly liberated the servants and dependents of the rebel, from every duty which they might otherwise have been bound to pay to him. Not only the immediate domains of the crown, but the whole territory of the kingdom, except that which was consecrated to the service of religion and its ministers, was ultimately the property of the sovereign. To him every fief reverted, upon the failure of the line of the successors of the vassal to whom it had been at first granted. All profits arising from the distribution of justice among his vassals, pertained to him. All conquests made by his subjects were ultimately his. From him, again, his vassals had a right to demand such protection against all enemies, foreign and intestine, as might preserve them in the secure enjoyment of their fiefs, while they continued faithfully to discharge their feudal duties *.

' Such is the general outline of the mutual relations and duties of the several orders of individuals in the community, to one another; as they were defined and established by the laws and customs which prevailed in Scotland, in the period for which the national transactions are related in the preceding section of this second book of our history.

' The community consisted of all the subjects of the kingdom, with their king, living together, under the laws here explained. The common duties which all members of the community owed to it, were in general;—to support its existence, and to promote its improvement.

' Although mean and wretched in his situation; yet, even the slave was under the protection of the laws. Forasmuch then as his servile state, under the protection which he enjoyed, and with the hopes he was permitted to entertain, was better than absolute exclu-

* *Forduni Scotichronicon, Regiam Majestatem, Cragii Jus. Feud. passim.*

tion from civil life; precisely in the degree of its advantages, was his obligation to respect and serve the common interests of the state. Certain freedom and property might well have allured him to forsake his lord, and the community in which he was held in bondage. Hardly in this case, would his desertion have been just or wise; upon any other motives, it would have been heinously criminal. The slave was not required or allowed to serve in full armour in defence of his country *.

‘ The Socco-men, a class whose distinctions and privileges, having originated in the Anglo-Saxon times, were necessarily maintained even under the Norman feodism, by the state of husbandry, and the indispensable demands for its productions;—appear to have enjoyed, at least nominally, the happiest condition in the state. But, being unarmed and defenceless, they were subject to oppression and exactions. In an age in which force too often trampled upon all laws and rights; the labours and property of the husbandman were extremely insecure. But, they were freemen, and capable of holding property in land and things moveable; therefore, their inviolable fealty was due to the community in which they enjoyed those advantages. Beside that homage, service, and rent which they were obliged to pay to the superior lords from whom they held their lands; the Socco-men appear to have been likewise bound to serve the community, as in the Anglo-Saxon times, by the reparation of roads and bridges, and by making such opposition to invading enemies, as they might be able to make, without having been trained to war, or being furnished with compleat armour. In the progress of feodism in Scotland, the Socco-men acquired still more and more of a martial character, and often served their country in arms †.

‘ But the military tenants were the strength of the nation. Their feudal duty—to the crown, or to a superior who was a subject, required commonly, that they should, for forty days in the year, attend this superior, in arms, in order to fight his battles. If this period of annual military service should prove insufficient for the defence, or the glory of the nation; it was, then, the duty of the tenants by military service, who had arms in their hands, to continue in action, till the tranquillity of their country should be honourably secured. It was equally their duty—to consult with the king, and with one another, concerning those services which the circumstances of their country might require, above what they were, by the conditions of their feudal tenure, bound to perform. As civil order was continually established with increasing security in the progress of the kingdom of the Scots; private quarrels were still more and more effectually restrained, so that, when the feudal system existed in Scotland, in its full vigour; the military vassals could have few fair

* ‘ L L. Dav. Lib. II. &c.

† L L. Dav. Gul. Alex. II. passim.

occasions for warfare, except the common service of their country.

‘ Having, however, no other profession but that of arms; they were ever ready for any military services which their country might demand. In this age of force and passion, little influenced by enlightened reason, arms were necessary to support and enforce every act of government. Out of the military order, therefore, as being at once the most honourable, and the fittest to enforce the laws, were all the king’s servants who exercised the official government, naturally chosen. They were earls, constables, marshals, chamberlains, justiciaries. Every public office was exercised by them; except such as might be accepted by ambitious clergymen overstepping the just modesty of the clerical character. It was the duty of the military order to prove themselves, against all foes, foreign or intestine, the guardians of right, and the protectors of innocence and peace. When ostensible public duties demanded; they were first to stand forth. Whether called or not to public services; still their rank in the community required them to be beneficially active. They were the arms and the heart of the community *.’ Vol. i. p. 405.

Here are numerous assertions, some right and some erroneous, but all equally destitute of proofs; and the flippant manner is more fit for the theme of a pert school-boy than for the majestic dignity of history.

The second volume extends from the death of Alexander III. to that of Robert de Brus. In the advertisement, the author says, he only quotes original histories and public records, because upon them his credit must depend. This *credit* would have been more secure, if he had added the names of the modern authors whom he has pillaged.—The following paragraph of this advertisement may excite a smile at Mr. Heron’s vanity and self-importance.

‘ I wish publicly to express my thanks to those gentlemen, who, having done me the undeserved honour of thinking the credit of the Scottish nation to be, in some measure, concerned in the perfection and the success of this work,’ &c.

We can assure this writer that the credit of the Scottish nation has no connexion with any of his hasty effusions.

From this volume we will extract the narrative of the battle of Bannockburn.

‘ All night, the two armies rested under their arms. At the dawn of day, the English moved onwards to the attack. Among the Scots, mass was, in the mean time, solemnly celebrated by the ab-

* ‘ L. L. David. Gulielmi. Alex. Secund. ut supra.’

bot of Inchaffray, on an eminence, within sight of the whole army, and on their behalf. Their king, conferred the honour of knight-hood, as was usual upon such occasions, on Douglas, Stewart, and some other young nobles; then exhorted all his host, to maintain their ground with firmness, till they should conquer, or gloriously perish; reminded them of the unpardonable wrongs they had suffered, and of the ills which they had, in their turn, inflicted; warmly suggested to their hopes and fears, that the secure independence, or lasting slavery of their country, depended on the fortune of this day's engagement. The foremost division of the English army, led on by the earls of Hereford and Gloucester, advanced in one compact squadron, and began the battle, by attacking the right wing of the Scots, which was commanded by Edward Bruce. The rest of the English came up, under the immediate command of their king himself, to support and pursue the movements of the van. While the English were seen to begin the fight with the attack of the Scottish right wing; Randolph eagerly led on his victorious troops of the left wing, to attack the English opposite to them. Douglas, and Walter Stewart, in the same manner, soon brought into action, the central columns that were under their command. And, the battle was thus joined, from one side of the field, to the other. The English warned by the defeat of Clifford's cavalry, on the preceding day, had brought their infantry, and particularly their archers, foremost, into this day's engagement*.

* The battle raged with dreadful fury. The combatants rushed together, with loud shouts; and to these succeeded the clangour of shields, the crash of breaking spears, the rattling of quivers, the twanging noise of bow-strings, the cries of the wounded, and the groans of the dying. The long shafts of the spears, were, for the greater part, quickly broken; and the spearmen, then penetrating, mutually, through the adverse lines, fought, hand to hand, with their smaller arms. But, the archers, and those armed with other missile weapons, who wore little defensive armour, and fought from a distance, made a much greater, reciprocal havock, than took place among the spearmen. The Scottish king, with that part of his army which was retained in reserve, beheld from a height in the back-ground of the field, the execution of those movements which he had concerted with his generals, and the fluctuating course of the battle. He soon observed, that the English bowmen, by their superior dexterity, and perhaps by the wider range of their bows, greatly overmatched the Scottish. With a coolness and promptitude of mind, not inferior to that daring courage which he had, at other times, displayed; he instantly dispatched sir Robert Keith, with five hundred light horsemen, upon the perilous service of riding into the thickest throng of the English archers; where they appeared the most sorely to annoy the Scottish; and of thus dispersing

* 'Barbour, B. XII.'

them, or hewing them in pieces, with the battle-axe. Keith and his company, taking a circuitous course, came upon those archers, at one side, before they were aware of his approach or intentions, and accomplished his enterprize with complete success. The fortune of the battle was thus restored to an equality, in the only part of the field, on which it had threatened to turn against the Scots; and they now appeared to fight, every where, with a fair prospect of victory. The conflict was, however, still obstinately prolonged, with desperate valour, and with great slaughter, on both sides. It might seem, here and there over the field, to languish; but this was only where the vigour of the combatants was wearied out by long exertion; not because their mutual rage was, in any degree, satiated or overcome. Bruce thought it, at length, time, to conduct into the battle, those fresh troops, which he had hitherto kept in reserve. All the English forces were now, engaged, as far as the disadvantages of the ground would permit. But, the field was too narrow, to allow them, sufficiently to expand the wings on either side, or even to open and spread out their central column, with due effect: they were, in some places, crowded together, so as to be hindered from freely wielding their weapons: the banks of Bannockburn, and the deceitful pits prepared, by the Scots, either prevented the greater part of the English cavalry from advancing into the action, or entangled and disabled them, as they came rashly onwards. Already relaxing their efforts; the English began to give way, and to lose ground rapidly; when Bruce with the Scottish reserve, shewed themselves in the fore-front of the battle. The English leaders strove to rally their troops. But, while they made their last despondent exertions, the stragglers, and loose unembodied attendants, belonging to the Scottish army; in number, about fifteen thousand persons; who had been dismissed from the camp, before the battle; suddenly appeared upon the western heights; and seemed to be another great army approaching to re-inforce the Scots. This sight struck a general terrour into the hearts of all the English; which no efforts or encouragements of their leaders, could counteract. Aymer de Valence, perceiving, that the route became universal, and that all was lost, hurried king Edward from the field. The carnage was now terrible; the Scots making a great slaughter among those who fled, without resistance; and many of the bravest of the English knights, turning to rush upon certain death, rather than survive to share the ignominy of their vanquished king, and fellow-soldiers. The gallant earl of Gloucester, honourably fell, in a last attempt to rally the English soldiers around him. Sir Giles D'Argentine; one of the most renowned knights of the age; who had served with great glory, in the Holy Land, against the Saracens, and in other wars; having here attended the English king, till Edward was about to betake himself to flight; refused to flee with the monarch, or to turn his back, now, for the first time, before his foes; but spurring his horse furiously on, and shouting, "an Argentine! an Argentine!"

rushed with a desperate impetuosity among the enemy, where he saw them thickest; and was soon buried, with his horse, under their spears*.

* The feeble, unfortunate Edward led the flight, in the utmost trepidation; nor halted, till he was received by Gospatrick, earl of March, into the castle of Dunbar. Many of the fugitives were driven, in the confusion of the flight and pursuit, to the banks of the Forth; where plunging headlong, they perished in its stream. Many sought protection, with the garrison in Stirling-Castle, or even threw themselves, in despair, on the open sides of the hill on which it stood, and on the plain skirting its western edge, below. The Scots urged the pursuit with unwearied activity, and insatiable rage. Douglas, with a troop of sixty horsemen, followed hard after the English king; and had soon so nearly overtaken him; that Edward might have been made prisoner; had not Douglas's slender company been too unequal in numbers, to attack the great force of cavalry, that fled with Edward. Yet, Douglas still continued the pursuit; harassed the English rear, and cut off those who, by reason of their wounds or fatigue, fell behind; till he had seen them enter, with trembling confusion, the gates of Dunbar. Edward, after a short time of refreshment and rest at Dunbar, hastened by sea, to Bamburgh, in Northumberland. The earl of Hereford, with some followers, who had taken refuge, with him, in Bothwell-Castle, were soon after, made prisoners by Edward Bruce. Moubray, the governor of Stirling-Castle, was no sooner summoned, in the name of the victorious king of the Scots, to surrender the castle, than he yielded it, faithfully, in compliance with the conditions of his former capitulation. Those fugitives from the army, who had taken refuge round this castle, likewise yielded themselves, without resistance, to the mercy of their conquerors. Many, especially of the Welshmen who had followed the English banners, were miserably slain by the peasants who found them wandering about the country, naked, helpless, and not knowing whither to flee. The victors eagerly spoiled the tents and corpses of their routed and fallen enemies. The armour, the horses, the provisions which they seized, and afterwards the sums of money with which their prisoners were ransomed, were almost sufficient to overpay the devastation of their country, and the long perils and afflictions which they had, themselves, undergone. Among other precious articles of booty, the English king's privy seal fell, with two of his secretaries to whose custody it had been committed, into the hands of the Scots. Baileton, the poet, whom Edward had brought with him, to celebrate his intended victories; being also made prisoner; earned for himself, kind usage, and liberty, by the composition of a poem, in praise of the heroism and glory of the conquerors. Several of the most illustrious prisoners, were, for different reasons, generously dismissed

* * Barbour, B. XIII. &c.

from their captivity, without ransom. After the rage of the battle had ceased, none were butchered in cold blood. Funeral honours were humanely granted to the bodies of the English chiefs who had fallen on the field of battle. The bodies of the common soldiers were more hastily, and with less solemnity, interred by heaps together, in deep pits. The earl of Hereford, and with him perhaps also some other noble prisoners, were after some time, exchanged for the wife, the sister, and the daughter of Bruce, the bishop of Glasgow, and the young earl of Marre. The number of the slain, as well on the side of the Scots, as on that of the English, appears to have been very great; but, has not been precisely ascertained*.

Vol. ii. p. 164.

A part of this volume, amounting to about one hundred and fifty pages, presents a tedious disquisition on the labours, knowledge, and enjoyments, of the inhabitants of Scotland, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. So numerous are the errors, that a volume might be employed in correcting them. The chief characteristics are, a confusion of the laws and manners of England with those of Scotland, the pert flippancy of crude and boyish remarks, and the long and lulling meanders of reasoning ignorance.

The third volume contains an account of the period which elapsed from the accession of David de Brus to the death of James III. In his advertisement, p. vii, the author so far affronts the common sense of his readers, as gravely to assert that Hume and Robertson drew, not only their facts, but their 'reflections, and general views, whether in ethics, politics, or the science of legislation, which accompany those facts, from the ancient writers whom they quote.' *Risum teneatis?* But we may affirm that the very reverse of this is the truth. By way of contrast Mr. Heron adds that all his thoughts are his own. They may be his own; but he might, without injury to the public, have locked his treasure. The bee, which gathers honey from every flower, is generally preferred to the spider, which spins its hasty mansion from its own bowels.

This volume also falls into two parts, one historical, the other declamatory; and Mr. Heron, as he proceeds, becomes more idly loquacious. We wish that he would learn the prudent maxim of *keeping his thoughts to himself*.

* 'Barbour, B. XIII:—Fordun. XII. 19, 20, 21, 22, 23.'

(To be continued.)

Some Observations upon the Vindication of Homer, and of the ancient Poets and Historians, who have recorded the Siege and Fall of Troy; written by I. B. S. Morritt, Esq. By Jacob Bryant. 4to. 4s. sewed. Payne. 1799.

IF our critical readers be similarly affected with ourselves, they will at length begin to entertain an opinion, that this subject of Troy and the Trojan war has been sufficiently discussed, and should now be dismissed, for a time at least, to prevent the absolute satiety of the public. And more especially is a discontinuance of the debate expedient and even necessary, when the attention of the combatants is diverted from the main object of inquiry to personal attack and private animosity; when argument is beginning, not only to blend itself with the reciprocal altercations of individual hostility, but also not infrequently to be superseded by them.

Mr. Bryant makes frequent and heavy complaints of the uncandid and unhandsome personalities in which his adversary has indulged his displeasure; and he expresses his feelings on this point with the appearance of strong irritation and resentment. But we must fairly and unreservedly acknowledge, that we did not discover any thing particularly exceptionable, as to this charge, in Mr. Morritt's *Vindication*; and we are of opinion, that no writer, however venerable for age, learning, and ingenuity, should claim the privilege of being exempt from all freedom of reprehension with regard to his *opinions*, provided only that no personal malevolence or complexional asperity of temper be suffered to debase the liberty of criticism. Some degree of keenness, perhaps, is almost requisite to prevent a controversial subject from wearying the generality of mankind. As one of the old philosophers, when reproved for giving alms to a depraved and immoral petitioner, replied, that 'his benevolence was not conferred on the *man*, but on *humanity*;' so we can conceive the possibility of attacking an hypothesis with great severity of language, without the slightest feeling of ill-will against its author.

In our judgement, the present controversy turns on these two points: 1. Whether, on a comparison of the age, learning, characters, numbers, and opportunities of information, challenged by those writers, who have directly or indirectly authenticated the Trojan war, with the qualifications of those who have disputed or disbelieved the reality of this event, the credibility lies with its advocates or with its adversaries: 2. Whether variations and inconsistencies in the accounts given by those writers; whether an intermixture of what is fabulous, miraculous, and impossible, in the poetical narratives of the transactions in question; whether too the objections of

ingenious and learned men, so many ages after these efforts, and amidst such a dearth of ancient records and of other adequate means of information; whether, we repeat, these unfavourable circumstances may be supposed to invalidate essentially and fundamentally an alleged fact, almost universally credited and recorded by the civilised nations and accomplished writers of antiquity.

On the purport of these propositions we shall not hesitate to declare our dissent from Mr. Bryant and our coincidence of opinion with his antagonist; nor can we allow petty difficulties and slight inconsistencies to destroy our faith in a grand article of human testimony, so conditioned as the event of the Trojan war. But, at the same time, we claim for ourselves no infallibility of judgement, and approve and applaud the sceptical discussions of learned men.

After this general statement of the question, and this explicit declaration of our own opinion, we should not think ourselves justifiable in detailing to our readers all the minute particularities of debate which occur in these *Observations* of Mr. Bryant; nor, indeed, would the limits of our journal allow such an accurate and scrupulous exhibition of this literary skirmish. We shall only animadvert occasionally as we survey the publication, and quote a few passages for the general information of our readers, with regard to the complexion of Mr. Bryant's reply.

He introduces his answer with these remarks:

‘In my observations upon Mr. Morritt's Vindication of Homer, I shall not professedly enter into any considerations concerning the war, with which it is connected: but only consider if his strictures are well founded and his conclusions just. He prefaces this Vindication with a remark, which is so abstruse and elaborate, that I am not sure, that I perfectly understand it. It begins in the following manner. P. 1. “It is a misfortune attending on all old, and established truths, that whilst they are received in the world, as matters of general notoriety, or undoubted authority, we are contented to take them upon trust: and, not irrationally, give credit to the opinions of those, who had better opportunities than ourselves to judge of their truth or falsehood.” Here is an unlucky circumstance mentioned, and it is not easy to find out in what it consists. We are told, that it is a misfortune attending upon old and established truths, that “they are taken upon trust.” But how can any ancient fact be taken otherwise? Whatever is not intuitively known, must be received in this manner. It is farther added, that “we are contented to take them upon trust.” But this is a truth too plain to be mentioned. For we must necessarily be contented, where there is no choice. What adds to the misfortune is said to be, that “we, not irrationally, give credit to the opinions of those,

who had better opportunities than ourselves to judge of their truth or falsehood." There seems to me to be here, what we call, a paralogism: for how can it be a misfortune to act rationally: and to give credit to those, who are better informed? In short how can there be loss, or grievance, in admitting evidence upon "undoubted authority?" The author says, that we are contented to give this assent: and well contented we may be: for what more can be desired than moral certainty? The author adds, that sceptics have appeared upon this subject before Mr. B.—*Sed omnes illacrymabiles urgentur, ignotique, longâ nocte jacent* (so it should be expressed.) To this I can only say, it is a pity that this mark of contempt was introduced so early; or that it was introduced at all. It is an unfortunate prelude.' P. 1.

On this occasion, we are ready to acknowledge, that Mr. Morritt has not expressed his thoughts with the greatest perspicuity imaginable; but we are of opinion, that the general sentiment is not destitute of pertinency, or difficult of conception. We can easily apprehend, how some points of history have been received with such implicit confidence, and unquestioned persuasion of their authenticity, that no discussions have arisen upon them, before so long a period has elapsed from the event, as renders even the petty objections of learned and ingenious men difficult to be surmounted, when the means of information and refutation have been intercepted by the intervention of so many believing and undebating generations of mankind. Immediately after the observations which we have quoted, Mr. Bryant proceeds to remark,

' P. 3. The author of the Vindication says, that "he disclaims all ill will to Mr. B." This would appear very liberal and fair, if he had not immediately subjoined, that "though there is an appearance of candor, yet he (Mr. B.) does not seem to have considered the affirmative with indifference." Hence we find, that, notwithstanding this plausible appearance of candor, Mr. B. has but little share of it, and has viewed things with a very partial eye. After this come some very severe intimations. "The reader will judge, whether his (Mr. B's.) statements are always perfectly fair. And, if he finds, that interpretations are given by him to classical passages, wholly unwarranted by the context; translations materially differing from their originals; and erroneous transcripts from the originals themselves; he will be apt to smile at the fervour of that zeal, which has stepped forward under the mask of inquiring for literary truth, to defend a favourite Egyptian system." The author seems already greatly aggrieved, and betrays much disquietude: and, we fear, some intimations of more ill will than he owns.

' Vestibulum ante ipsum, primisque in faucibus Orci
Luctus, et ultrices posuere cubilia Curæ.

He indeed sets out with only saying, that "the reader should consider, and judge, whether the statements of Mr. B. are always perfectly fair." This is mild and gentle; and like that calm which comes before a storm. But he is afterwards less moderate: and speaks "of passages wholly unwarranted, false translations, erroneous transcripts;" and as we shall find in the course of the treatise, "wilful perversion" of the truth. So far from smiling at a mistaken zeal, the world must detest a man under such a mask, who is guilty of so much perfidy and baseness; who, whatever his parts may be, has prostituted them to so vile a purpose. But it is to be hoped, that we shall find things more favourable; and that the character of the person alluded to, will not be affected by these severe allegations. As to truth being sacrificed for a favourite Egyptian system, the insinuation is disingenuous; and no such prejudice is to be found. It is very unworthy the person, from whom it proceeds. It is open to the reader to judge, whether there be the least truth in this censure: and he may further consider, whether he can here see, or whether he ever in his life saw,—"Fervour of zeal under a mask of inquiry, stepping forward to maintain an Egyptian system." It affords a strange and complex phænomenon, totally past my comprehension.' P. 2.

Here we shall leave it to the determination of our readers, whether our author does not show himself more irascible than the behaviour of his antagonist will warrant. An impartial observer will of course conclude, that no small portion of the pamphlet, from this preliminary, is likely to be occupied in personal altercation and trivial debate, which can interest none but those persons whose affections are engaged on the subject with an ardour equal to that by which the contending writers themselves are actuated. Besides, in these reciprocations, many parts are usually unintelligible, unless both the pamphlets should lie before the reader, and be examined with perpetual reference, and an exact inspection of the historical authorities that are adduced; authorities, which in the present instance are abstruse and numerous. For these reasons, we shall submit to the notice of the reader only one additional quotation, in which we discover, or think we discover, strong indications of puerility and captiousness; but we will not anticipate the decision of the public.

'P. 22. "Mr. B. now starts another objection, for he asserts, that the shipping of the Grecians must, by a ten years anchorage, have been rendered totally unfit for service." We should never strain the words of a writer beyond their true purport. There is no mention made by Mr. B. of anchorage, nor were the ships at anchor, but drawn upon the beach. Nor does he assert, but says only that one "would imagine." But if he had spoken more determinate-

ly, how could he be blamed, when he is countenanced by the very words of the poet?

‘Καὶ δὴ δὲρα σέσηπε γένων, καὶ σπαστὰ λελύνται.

“The timbers are rotted, and the cordage has lost it's strength.” These words the author unduly suppresses and proceeds, we fear, in a course of argument too lax and inconclusive. He tells us, that Mount Ida abounded in timber, and adds, “Is it necessary to suppose, that the ships were never repaired, because they are never mentioned as undergoing the operation?—At the time to which Agamemnon alludes the rigging might want repairing. We suppose, before they failed, it was repaired.” p. 23. But why does he suppose, when there is not the least ground for supposition? He argues from the silence of the poet, when he speaks most plainly: and when he tells us, that in the tenth year, just before the conclusion of the war, the ships were very much decayed. And there is no reason to think, as the author does, that before they failed, there was any repairing: for the contrary is manifest. In the *Odyssey* Nestor gives a full account of every material article, that followed, upon the destruction of the city. He says, that they immediately purposed to return. That they first called a council, to which they came intoxicated, and dissensions ensued. They afterwards separated with much noise and tumult. He intimates farther, that Agamemnon wished to restrain the people in order to offer some propitiatory sacrifices; but he was defeated in his purpose: for the greatest part immediately set sail, and he soon followed. *Odys. Γ. v. 130.* There was therefore no time for repairing or rebuilding a thousand ships.

‘The author still proceeds, and says—“From the quotation which Mr. B. gives at the end of this chapter, he infers that Menelaus used the same ships for eight years after the destruction of Troy.” It is very truly said, for it is so intimated by the poet in his *Odyssey*.

‘Η γὰρ πολλὰ παθὼν, καὶ πολλ’ ἐπαληθεῖς
Ἠγαγομένη ἐν νηυσὶ, καὶ οὐδοατῷ εἴπει ἦλθεν. Δ. 81.

To this evidence the author seems to us to make a strange reply, p. 23. “Homer’s words are ἐν νηυσὶ, in ships: and whether they were never repaired or rebuilt is a subject, on which he is totally silent.” Why then does the author make any inference, when he acknowledges that the poet says not one word to the purpose? Menelaus came with a fleet to Troy, and departed with it. How can we infer, that they were different ships, when no such intimation is afforded? In a note at the bottom of p. 23. we are told, “In this passage, I can find not one word that proves, what ships Menelaus possessed, or how they had been built, or how often repaired.” Why then does he, when he can find no intimation, make any supposition and venture upon conjecture unsupported? He is still

unwilling to give up the point, and, p. 24. says, "There are many seaboats in England whose duration has been greater than that of their (the Grecians') ships." Here is only half the truth said; the rest is not duly suppressed. There may be, what he calls seaboats, as old as Drake's ship was, at Deptford. But are there any such, which want no repairs; and, which after seventeen, or even ten, years, are fit for service? We cannot but hesitate about the propriety of this assertion.' P. 12.

Where an intelligent writer, like Homer, relates circumstances, which, simply and absolutely taken, are incredible and impossible, but which become very reasonable and clear by the intervention of a supposition, not necessary to be inculcated by a poet, intent upon more important objects; we think, that such a supposition may properly be made, and safely granted. If Menelaus, for example, should be reported as *sailing in ships* during a period of *eighteen* years, and it should appear from experience, that no ships can continue on the seas for so long a term without renovation and repair; though no such operations be expressly mentioned, are we not bound, from respect to a most sensible and accomplished writer, to *presume* on their reality, and to rescue the credit of the poet from absurdity and idiotism by an obvious concession in his favour? Is it not reasonable to conclude, that the *old ships*, as well as the *old clothes* of the Grecian chiefs, might be cleaned and brushed and mended, during the Trojan war, without a distinct reference, on Homer's part, to the particular functions and actual exertions of the shipwright and the tailor?

Upon the whole, we decidedly persist in our former judgment, that this subject has been sufficiently canvassed for the appetite even of the most eager antiquary; but, if any person should yet be solicitous for the debate, he may examine the *Observations* themselves, as they are copiously and contentiously exhibited by Mr. Bryant.

Biographia Medica; or, Historical and Critical Memoirs of the Lives and Writings of the most eminent Medical Characters that have existed from the earliest Account of Time to the present Period; with a Catalogue of their Literary Productions. By Benjamin Hutchinson, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

A MEDICAL biography is a work of no common labour. To give accounts of lives and doctrines now uninteresting and obsolete, in such a manner as will render the work pleasing and attractive, requires considerable powers of discrimination and of composition. The biographer of those literary phan-

toms, of which only a transient notice is desired, should endeavour to catch the leading incidents of their lives, which will, in some degree, connect them with the present state of science or with collateral branches of knowledge, or should seize, with skill, such circumstances as will interest the head or the heart. In the more important lives, a clear and comprehensive account of the opinions and writings of the subjects of the narrative should be detailed, not in the insulated state of a single life, but connected with others, who had prepared the way for discoveries, continued, or improved them. Thus, of Piens, it would be proper to remark, that he seems to have very early conceived the idea of the system of spasm in fevers, and was the first and most successful opponent of the humoral pathology; of Coe, that he entertained those judicious opinions of the nature of the bile, and of bilious diseases, which later experiments established; of Mayow, that his knowledge of the function of respiration might, if sufficiently attended to, have led long since to very useful discoveries. These indeed, and many other names, do not occur in this biographical system. It is remarkable, that, having had such frequent occasions to mention the name of Dr. Gregory, particularly in the article of Cullen, the author should have omitted his life. Many other omissions might be noticed, which perhaps will be supplied in a future edition. The present, from some unknown cause, seems to have been accelerated with unusual rapidity. But Mr. Hutchinson must be allowed to speak for himself:

‘ The compiler has been particularly attentive, to do justice to the learned and ingenious of all countries, whose public works or private professional characters, are held in high estimation. In the execution of this plan he has not recurred to dictionaries only, nor contented himself with supplying the defects of one dictionary from another, and cutting off the redundancies of all; but every thing has been collected from the different performances which contained materials relative to the plan. For an account of the writings of authors, recourse should be had to their works; and for that of their lives, to the best memoirs that are extant.

‘ It may possibly be objected to this work, that there are others, which supersede the necessity of the present; but it must be remembered, that since the publication of any work of medical biography, many very eminent and celebrated characters have existed, the memory of whose lives and examples might probably be lost to the public, were they not now recorded. By the advantage of an extensive correspondence with different medical men, the compiler has been able to collect the lives of some eminently distinguished physicians, and of others who have not yet graced the page of biography.’ Vol. i. p. v.

This modest account must prepossess the reader in favour of Mr. Hutchinson's pretensions; but, had not the hurry of publication precluded revision, he would have seen that much might have been added, and much revised from attentive consideration. The memoirs of some of the moderns are related in very unequal styles; and, in many of these, we perceive that the writer has too largely borrowed from biographers of a very recent date. The whole is not finished according to any one plan; and the opinions are occasionally different and even opposite. The principal authorities for the more ancient physicians are Mangerus, Le Clerc, Freind, and Dr. Aikin. For the lives of the moderns, Mr. Hutchinson seems chiefly indebted to the accounts prefixed to their several works, generally written by warm, sometimes injudicious, friends, and to private communications.

The lives of the ancient physicians are executed with greater accuracy than those of the moderns. The memoirs of some of the latter, however, are written with propriety and neatness, particularly that of Dr. Brocklesby. That of Dr. Brown is taken, with all the errors and imperfections on its head, from Dr. Beddoes' sketch prefixed to the new edition of Brown's Elements. In the life of Mr. C. Darwin we meet with injudicious panegyric, and various passages that are reprehensible. We cannot suffer such sentiments as the following to appear without at least *our* reprobation:

Ye classic schools! ye not only overcome the struggling efforts of genius, and bind his Proteus-forms, till he speaks the language you require; but you then divert his attention from the nice comparison of things with each other, and from associating the ideas of causes with their effects, and amuse him with the loose analogies, the vain verbal allusions, which constitute the ornaments of poetry and of oratory!—Mr. Darwin acquired a competent knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, chiefly by reading books of useful knowledge, or which contained the elements of science, and which were more agreeable to him than the monstrous and immoral tales of heathen mythology, or of fabulous history. He was of opinion, that to study these dead languages so accurately as to criticise their beauties, and at a time when all their books of real value had been repeatedly translated, was a prodigality of labour, which might suit the retirement of a pedant, but was unbecoming an active philosopher: that to acquire a taste for Greek poetry by years of ill-employed industry, was not much more important, than to acquire the power of playing well on some one musical instrument: and that, in the schools of language, as in the schools of painting, a man of science should learn the use of the pen and pencil, as far as they are concerned in the expression or communication of distinct or useful ideas: but to waste the first twenty years

of life in learning the metaphors of language, or the drapery of drawing, might serve those who made poetry or painting their profession; but was liable to disqualify the mind for the more energetic pursuits of business or philosophy.' Vol. i. P. 240.

In this passage there is scarcely a sentence, that would not require a remark, were not its general absurdity sufficiently glaring. It is evidently the decision of a blind man on a question of optics, or the beauty of a prospect.

That Mr. Darwin wrote the Essay on the Distinction of Mucus and Pus, and made the experiments there related, we do not deny. Dr. Cappe's evidence relates only to their accuracy, with one exception. But the idea of the retrograde motion of the fluids in the absorbents was certainly claimed by Dr. Darwin when he published the essay in the *Zoonomia*, where it makes a part of a much more extensive plan.

The life of Dr. Cullen is defective and inaccurate, particularly in the events which occurred after he had been chosen professor at Edinburgh. We regret, that among his numerous pupils no one has been found, who would detail the events of his life, and rescue his system from misrepresentation. We take this opportunity of correcting some of the errors in the present sketch.

' On the death of Dr. Alston, professor of medicine, in 1763, the magistrates of Edinburgh appointed Dr. Cullen to succeed him, with a request, that he would finish a course of lectures which his predecessor had begun. He consented, but instead of contenting himself with reading the imperfect copy which had been consigned to him, undertook a new course which was entirely his own. The number of students increased, and added to the popularity of the new professor. An inaccurate copy of his lectures having been printed, he thought it expedient afterwards to publish a more correct edition. The infirmities of age increasing, he resigned his office in favour of Dr. Black, who had been formerly his pupil. On the death of Dr. Rutherford, who had long given lectures on the practice of physic, Dr. Cullen and Dr. John Gregory became candidates for the vacant place. But previous to the time appointed for election, the parties agreed to a compromise. It was stipulated, that each should give lectures alternately during their respective lives; but that the survivor should retain the class, to which he should give the preference. The arrangement having thus been made, Dr. Cullen delivered the first course of lectures in 1766, and Dr. Gregory in the year following succeeded him. On the unexpected death of his colleague, Dr. Cullen continued to give lectures till within a few months before his death; an event which, to the regret of his friends and family, happened on the eleventh of October, in the year 1790.' Vol. i. P. 233.

In fact, Dr. Alston died before the course began; and he was professor of the department of *materia medica*. We have now both Alston's and Cullen's lectures. Of both we have spoken in their proper places; but the bold outline displayed in the catalogue, the vast and comprehensive design, which had, at that time, no parallel in any school of medicine, must give a very favourable idea of the extent of Cullen's views. We know it to have been wholly original, and we know it to have been the first attempt to treat of the virtues of medicines, according to the natural orders of Linnæus. He gave only a single course of *materia medica*, as he was soon after appointed professor of chemistry. The chemical chair he resigned, in favour of Dr. Black, not from infirmity, but on being promoted to the professorship of the institutions. He certainly aimed at becoming the founder of a sect, and, with that view, had given a course of lectures in the summer (while professor of chemistry) on pathology, a branch of the institutions neglected by his predecessor. For some years he lectured on the institutions only; and Dr. Gregory was sole professor of the practice of medicine. In 1770, the arrangement alluded to took place; and we believe, that in 1771 he gave, in turn, his first public course of the practice of medicine. In the beginning of 1772, Dr. Gregory died; and Dr. Cullen was sole professor of the practice of medicine for the remainder of his life.

The life of Dr. Hunter and that of his brother are well written, but with too great warmth of praise, and, particularly in that of Mr. John Hunter, too little discrimination of real merit.

Lavoisier is improperly connected with physicians, in a medical biography; yet his life is written with scientific precision. We will extract a luminous comparison between the labours of the French chemist and those of Dr. Priestley. The insertion of Mr. Henry's excellent letter which accompanies this extract, requires no apology.

* M. Lavoisier, supported by the union of the most distinguished French chemists, resolved to collect into one focus all the new facts, which he had elucidated separately. He accordingly made a methodical arrangement, and formed some new chemical principles, which he published in the year 1789. In this last work are amassed all the discoveries, which he made during a period of twenty years. In all his productions he observes a regular and methodical order. Among his numerous essays may be traced a continued series of wonderful industry, the same accuracy of description, the same proofs of innate genius. In the works of Dr. Priestley, a multitude of experiments and discoveries are every where presented: we are astonished with the number and diversity of apparently new

facts; but we are at the same time struck with their incoherence, opposition, and contradiction: we vainly endeavour to arrange into any order so many different results and scattered ideas. Lavoisier conducts us in a straight and easy path, where our steps are sure and certain. Priestley opens to our view a thousand new tracks, but without any communication, without enabling us to see where we are to begin, and where to end. The works of Lavoisier are as a skein of silk, formed by a single thread, and easy to be wound and collected: those of Priestley represent a clew composed of a number of threads differing in strength and extent, and which are liable to be broken every moment.' Vol. ii. P. 49.

' SIR,

' I wish it were in my power to give you any useful information relative to the life and writings of the much to be lamented M. Lavoisier, that might furnish materials for a biographical account of him. I only know, that he was a man of considerable note and fortune under the old government, and possessed the place of intendant of the finances: that he was afterwards made a farmer-general; and that his opulence tempted Robespierre to dispatch him by the guillotine on some frivolous charge, I think of depreciating the value of his assignats. During his confinement, foreseeing that he should at least be deprived of his effects, he is said to have consoled himself with the hopes, that he should have been able to maintain himself by the practice of pharmacy: and that having conceived the idea of making some grand and interesting experiments, he petitioned for a few days respite with leave to make his trials, which was cruelly denied him. I believe all his principal writings, except the volume of essays which I translated, his elementary work, and a treatise on the preparation of nitre, are contained in the memoirs of the academy of sciences.

' Madame Lavoisier partook of her husband's zeal for philosophical inquiry, and cultivated chemistry with much success.

' I am, &c. THOMAS HENRY.' Vol. ii. P. 51.

The life of Dr. Leake will furnish another specimen of the work.

' Leake (Dr. John) born in the parish of Ainstable, in the county of Cumberland, was the son of a clergyman, curate of the same parish, who came from Glasgow in Scotland. He was first sent to school at Croglin; and thence removed to the grammar school at Bishop Auckland, where he was distinguished by his rapid advances to the first classes of that ancient seminary. When his education was finished, he went to London, with a design to engage in the profession of arms; but not being endowed with such an ample portion of patience, as to wait the accomplishment of those expectations, with which he had been flattered, he devoted his attention

to medicine. After attending the hospitals in London, and being admitted a member of the corporation of surgeons, an opportunity presenting itself of extending his knowledge, by visiting foreign countries, he embarked for Lisbon; whence, after gratifying his thirst for information by every thing worthy of remark in that metropolis, he visited several parts of Italy, and on his return to London, commenced business, as a surgeon and man-midwife, in the neighbourhood of Piccadilly.

‘ He soon after published “A Dissertation on the Properties and Efficacy of the Lisbon Diet Drink;” which he administered with success in many very desperate cases of lues, scrofula, and scurvy. Stimulated by an ardent desire to enlarge the sphere of his knowledge, and encouraged by his skilful countryman, the late Dr. Hugh Sanders, who was also bred to the chirurgical profession, he presented himself to the president and censors of the London college, and passed the usual examinations with uncommon eclat. About this time he removed to a spacious house in Craven-street, in the Strand, where he commenced lecturer in the obstetric art, by delivering to the faculty, who were indiscriminately invited to attend, his “Lecture introductory to the Theory and Practice of Midwifery,” which passed through four editions in 4to. In 1765, he purchased a piece of ground on a building lease, and afterwards presented to the public the original plan for the institution of the Westminster lying-in hospital. As soon as the building was raised, he voluntarily, and without any consideration, assigned over to the governors all his right in the above premises, in favour of the hospital; and published, in 1773, a volume of “Practical Observations on the Child-Bed Fever;” and in 1774, “A Lecture introductory to the Theory and Practice of Midwifery, including the History, Nature, and Tendency of that Science, &c. publicly delivered October the 4th, 1773, 1774,” 8vo; which was afterwards considerably varied, enlarged, and published in 2 vols. under the title of “Medical Observations and Instructions on the Nature, Treatment, and Cure of various Diseases incident to Women.” This was so well received by the public, as to pass through seven or eight editions; and has been translated into the French and German languages.

‘ About the latter end of 1791, he was seized with an indisposition of the breast, which was imagined to have been occasioned by his application in composing “A practical Essay on the Diseases of the Viscera, particularly those of the Stomach and Bowels.” He recovered from that illness, and in the spring of 1792, the work was published. About three weeks before his death, he had a return of his former complaint; but the day before he died, the physician, by whom he was attended, as well as the doctor himself, thought him much better, and it was intended he should remove the next day to sleep in the country. He retired to rest on Tuesday evening the 7th of August, having given orders to his servant to call him

the next morning by eight o'clock. This was done, and no answer being made, the man called again at nine, with as little success. The night bolt of the chamber-door was then forced, and Dr. Leake was found dead in his bed; which event appeared to have taken place some hours. This was on the 8th of August 1792.

‘ He was a very personable man, somewhat below the middle size, temperate in diet, active in business, acute in perceptions, voluble and very entertaining in his discourse, and an accomplished gentleman, owing to the great advantage of having travelled, and also to his having always found an easy admission into the most fashionable circles. Indeed he was allowed to be one of the best bred and polite physicians of the age; and in no part of the world are such qualities without their value, while in London they are peculiarly proper, and even necessary. But he was somewhat precise in his manners; and from too great irritability of temper, sometimes disgusted both his pupils and patients, to whom he was nevertheless ever anxious to be serviceable. He also was a warm admirer of Shakspeare.

‘ Among Dr. Leake's few singularities of character may be mentioned his extraordinary and even troublesome solicitude about fresh air. All his windows were made so as to admit it at the top, as well as at the bottom; and neither in his professional visits, nor those of friendship, could he be induced to remain in any room, in which fresh air was not instantly and copiously admitted.

‘ His publications seem not to be marked by any extraordinary depth of research, or any new discoveries; but they are all of them sensible, practical, and useful. The same character may be given of his style; which seldom rises to any remarkable degree of elevation, or elegance; but is always correct, perspicuous, and pleasing. Vol. ii. p. 53.

On the whole, it will be obvious that, with every error which haste and inexperience can produce, this work is not without merit; and, though parts truly valuable are thinly scattered, yet many of the lives, collected from sources not always accessible, offer useful observations and curious remarks. In another edition, the lacunæ may be filled up; and, what is of more importance, the whole may exhibit less of the patch-work—the *unus et alter purpureus pannus* may be less discernible.

Grove-Hill, a Descriptive Poem, with an Ode to Mithra, by the Author of Indian Antiquities. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Arch. 1799.

THE industry and genius of Mr. Maurice have in general been mis-employed: his unwearied labour has been exerted in searching for Christian mysteries amidst the darkness of Brami-

nical tradition; and his poetical powers are now wasted in celebrating Dr. Lettsom's house and garden! The poem thus commences:

"These are thy glorious works," Almighty Sire!
Whose spirit warms us in the solar fire,
In their vast orbits rolls the ponderous spheres,
And leads in radiant march the circling years.

"These are thy glorious works," Almighty King!
Thus to their golden harps rapt seraphs sing;
While mortals, kindling as those works they view,
Through earth's wide range the incessant theme renew;
From glowing realms, where brahmin seers prolong,
To day's refulgent orb, the matin song,
And, as the altar's hallow'd flame ascends,
In its full blaze the prostrate Persian bends;
To the deep gloom of Lapland's frozen shore,
Whose shivering sons the transient beam adore,
And, half the annual circle plung'd in night,
Hail the bright current for the source of light.

"Nature herself, exulting in the ray,
That pours through all her depths unbounded day,
Bursts into song; while now, returning spring;
Borne on the balmy zephyr's fragrant wing,
Like a young beauteous bride, from orient bowers,
Sparkling with dewy gems, and crowned with flowers;
Hastes to her favourite isle, and round her pours,
In rich profusion, health's exhaustless stores;
But in this lofty Grove triumphant reigns,
And decks, with choicest gifts, the laughing plains.

"Where'er around I turn my wondering sight,
New objects crowd, and wake increased delight;
Here sheets of living verdure charm the eye;
There glow rich tints that with the Tyrian vie.
Now, the gay garden with its varied sweets,
My raptured sense, a blooming Eden, greets:
Now from the turret's height my eager glance
I roll delighted o'er the vast expanse:
Now range yon ample lawn's luxuriant swell,
Or pensive wander down yon shadowy dell;
Or in the cool of eve's declining beam,
Seek the sweet cottage and its spacious stream;
While soft around the genial zephyr blows,
And murmuring waters sooth me to repose.

"Where shall the song begin, since every place
Invites alike, and beams with rival grace?

From scene to scene the muse bewildered flies,
 While all Elysium floats before her eyes.
 Such mingled transports our grand parent knew,
 When nature's charms first met his wondering view;
 Led, by his Maker, through the blooming wild,
 Where'er he roved rekindling beauties smil'd;
 On every plant he gazed, on every flower,
 And tasted every fruit that deck'd the bower;
 Paused in the valley, marked the mountain's pride,
 Or, hanging o'er the fountain's verdant side,
 Admired his shadow in the silver flood,
 The bright reflected lawn, the dancing wood,
 The heaven's blue concave, and the solar blaze,
 Till thought was lost amidst the shining maze.' P. 1.

These are good lines. The poet proceeds to describe the different parts of Dr. Lettsom's grounds, the grove leading to the house, the garden, the house and library, the museum, the lawn, the turret, the telegraph, the temple of the Sibyl, the apiary, Shakspeare's walk, the cottage, canal, &c. In this 'descriptive poem' we find some poetry and much panegyric; but it does not abound in description: that is to be found in the notes. Mr. Maurice has omitted what might have ornamented his poem; he is not a painter poet; he represents to the ear only, not to the eye.

We are glad to find in this superb volume something of more importance than these complimentary lines—the Ode to Mithra. The first part of this ode has so little novelty in its subject that much cannot be expected from the execution. The second is full of Mr. Maurice's oriental knowledge; and it exhibits a view of the ancient mysterious rites, which, he supposes, were celebrated in the Mithratic cavern.

'The brave have sheath'd th' avenging sword:
 Our potent song hath burst the secret spell
 That seal'd the watchful Magi's mystic cell:
 Responsive to our vows to Mithra pour'd,
 Where Media's rugged mountains, steep and hoar,
 Above the tempest's rage sublimely soar,
 What floods of issuing glory stream,
 What solemn symphonies float wild in air!
 With sacred fires a thousand caverns gleam,
 A thousand seers the mystic rites prepare;
 And while upon those fires—that round them blaze
 In radiant pyramids—entranc'd they gaze;
 Their spirits glowing with congenial flame,
 The lofty loud-resounding conch they blow,
 Around Arabia's richest odours throw,
 And rend the rocks with Mithra's mighty name.

Oped, by the mystic pow'r of fire,
 To the deep music of the solemn lyre,
 Behold yon massy gates of brass expand :
 And, through th' illumin'd cavern's vast extent,
 The picture of the boundless world present,
 The work of Mithra's demiurgic hand.
 Above, array'd in tints of loveliest blue,
 A concave dome, with glitt'ring symbols bright,
 And orient gems, that shed a vary'd light,
 Pour their full splendours on th' astonish'd view !
 Deep on the rock and jasper walls portray'd,
 The mighty circle of the zodiac shines.
 Here shed the brumal orbs their barren shade,
 There fiery glow the bright solstitial signs.
 Fed by rich streams from his o'erflowing urn,
 To Mithra's praise eternally they burn !

' High in the centre, wrought in burnish'd gold,
 Mithra, thy own refulgent orb appears;
 And round the vast circumference are roll'd
 Attendant planets and revolving spheres.
 To mark the wonders of thy plastic pow'r,
 That down to earth's profoundest centre darts,
 To slumb'ring matter life and form imparts,
 And ripens in its bed the glowing ore——
 Science, by thee the wond'rous process taught,
 Those pond'rous spheres of various metals wrought,
 Then launch'd within the cavern's vast expanse,
 Their radiant rivals in harmonious dance.
 Of virgin silver form'd, with ray serene,
 Shines fair Astarte, night's resplendent queen :
 Next Mercury his ardent aspect shews,
 As iron in the raging furnace glows :
 Of ruddy copper form'd, the blood-stain'd Mars
 On earth's affrighted race terrific glares :
 Venus, whom beauty's loveliest smile arrays,
 A brilliant vest of sparkling tin displays :
 Next dazzling Jupiter's enormous mass
 Rolls on, a pond'rous globe of burnish'd brass :
 While leaden Saturn's mightier sphere
 Through fields of azure wheels his vast career.
 The myriad sparkling gems that burn on high,
 To rapt Philosophy's bold ken display
 The blazing wonders of the starry sky,
 That through the vast abyss of space extend,
 To other worlds their cheering lustre lend,
 And light, through Nature's bounds, eternal day.

Smite, loudly smite, the choral string,
Aloft the golden censer raise;
Let heaven's bright arch with triumph ring,
And earth resound with Mithra's praise!' P. 55.

In this passage an ill effect is produced by confounding astronomy and mythology. That in this orrery the planet Venus should be made of tin is intelligible; but we feel some surprise when we hear that

'Venus, whom beauty's loveliest smile arrays,
A brilliant vest of sparkling tin displays.'

The Grecian goddess is represented to us in the first line; and we find it difficult and ridiculous to conceive her in a tin garment. In *Grove-Hill* we complained of too little description: here we must complain of too much.

'Bid Egypt's swarthy tribes rejoice!
The dog Anubis, from whose flaming mouth
Streams the dire pestilence that blasts the south,
High in the heavens exalts his warning voice:
Proclaims the mighty Sothic year's return,
And bids the Nile unlock his golden urn.
Loud, through the caverns of the mystic cell,
Howls the dire wolf; the boding ravens scream,
And finny monsters lash the briny stream:
Mark the bright serpent his vast length unfold,
And proudly swell in undulating gold;
Hissing responsive to the direful yell
Of the fell dragon, nightly issuing forth
From the dark chambers of the frozen north.
From the bull's ardent eye what splendours dart;
How brilliant glows the lion's mighty heart.
Wide o'er cerulean fields of lucid light
Orion's belt and gleaming falchion blaze;
And, flaming on the raven brow of night,
The northern crown beams forth unrivall'd rays.
Along the pictur'd walls, with skill design'd,
The dogs the panting hae unwearied chase:
Here, fiery Pegasus, with rapid bound,
In his fleet starry course outstrips the wind,
Impetuous straining through the wilds of space:
There, toiling o'er the dreary arctic round,
Slowly the cumb'rous wains are seen to roll;
And, with their gleaming axles, light the frozen pole.
But e'en the distant wains his pow'r obey,
Mithra, who form'd the night, and rules the day.

' Now having rang'd creation's vast extent,
 From all its base terrestrial dross refin'd,
 Let the glad Candidate's unclouded mind,
 New-fledg'd and vigorous, take its rapid flight
 Beyond the bounds of yon blue firmament,
 To the pure mansion of the source of light :
 There drink th' effulgence of the Godhead's ray,
 And bound and revel in eternal day.

But, lo ! on high the beauteous day-star glows !
 Orion's setting beam proclaims the dawn ;
 The fires faint glimm'ring bid the myst'ries close :
 And mark the radiant power that pours the morn,
 Prepares to leave his lofty golden sphere,
 And renovate through heav'n his bright career.

But, ere he quit the mystic cell,
 Ere the last glimmer of the sacred fire
 On the bright vase's hallow'd verge expire,
 In one vast peal the solemn anthems swell ;
 Strike, louder, bolder, strike, the choral string,
 Aloft, ye priests, your golden censers raise ;
 Let heaven's bright arch with thund'ring pæans ring,
 And earth's wide bounds resound with Mithra's praise. P. 63.

The description of the constellations is long and heavy ;
 there is something particularly unpleasant in the line—

' How brilliant glows the lion's mighty heart.'

On the whole, like all the productions of Mr. Maurice, this volume indicates more genius than discrimination.—We must not forget to mention the wood cuts which embellish the book. As they are executed in a masterly manner, they will preserve the poems from oblivion.

A Voyage round the World, performed in the Years 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788, by the Bouffole and Astrolabe, under the Command of J. F. G. de la Pérouse : published by Order of the National Assembly, under the Superintendance of L. A. Milet-Mureau, &c. Illustrated by a Variety of Charts and Plates, in a separate Folio Volume. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

A Voyage round the World, &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

HAVING examined the original account of this voyage* in two extensive articles, and followed M. de la Pérouse in his difficult enterprise with no common care, we should now only speak of the two rival translations, if some of the principal

* See our XXIII^d Vol. New Arr. p. 481, and Vol. XXIV. p. 546.

communications, independent of the journals, did not require our notice.

The English narratives differ in their form and the splendor with which they are adorned: they differ also in their execution. The octavo, being published more early, may be supposed to have been executed with greater haste. We have compared it in various parts with the original, and find few important inaccuracies. The version, is, however, more literal and harsh than in the quarto; and, on a careful examination, we observe some omissions. The language, also, is often grossly unscientific; and the maps and charts are incommodious and frequently inaccurate.

In the quarto translation we meet with a pleasing freedom of language, and a clearness of expression, without amplification. The scientific parts appear to be carefully rendered; and we are sensible of no omissions. The ornamental parts are splendid, and, in general, very accurate copies of the French original. Some of the plates are more clear and even free than those of the original work: some fall below the French in spirit, though not in execution. The frontispiece seems to represent Navigation resting on a rudder, describing to History the route of *la Pérouse*, attended by the Americans of the western coast. Painting is at the feet of History; and an attendant, resting on an anchor, appears to mourn the fate of the commander. The Bouffole and the Astrolabe are seen at a distance. The design is elegant and even beautiful.—The maps are some of the best that we have seen; and we do not perceive that any of them are carelessly or incorrectly executed.

The additions, which, except the original journals, are seemingly the only documents that have reached France, are numerous; but they are not all of equal value. *La Pérouse*, in some of these *addenda*, places himself next to captain Cook. For this we can forgive him; but he too frequently repeats his own praises. If he had not been thus ostentatious, we might have forbore to remark, that he left his most splendid discovery imperfect, viz. the passage from the channel of Tartary to the sea of Ochotz. So little remained, and that little was so completely within the reach of his boats, that we must wonder at the omission. There is great reason to think, that the island of Tchoka is connected with the Asiatic continent, or that a shallow *innavigabilis unda* unites them. Had *la Pérouse*, when he arrived at the 50th degree of latitude, dispatched his boats, while he examined the soundings from west and east, and the decrease of the water to the north, full time remained for the inquiry.

We will now notice M. Rollin's memoir on the inhabitants of that island. Though they live at no great distance from

the coast of Tartary, their figure and manners are very different from those of their neighbours. With features approaching to the Chinese on one side, and to the Europeans on the other, they have the manners of the former with scarcely a sound or word of their language.

‘ These people are very intelligent, respect property, have no distrust, and communicate readily with strangers. They are of a middle size, squat and strongly built, a little inclining to fat, and have the muscles of their bodies well defined. The general stature is five feet; but there are instances of men five feet four inches, though the number is few. They have all a large head, and a broader and rounder face than that of Europeans. Their countenance is lively and agreeable, though destitute, on the whole, of that grace and regularity which are necessary with us to constitute beauty. They have large cheeks, a short nose, rounded at the extremity, and broad nostrils. Their eyes are lively, of a moderate size, and in some instances blue, but for the most part black, with bushy eye-brows. The mouth is of the common size, the voice strong, and the lips, which are rather thick, are of a deep red. We remarked in some, that the middle of the upper lip was painted blue. These features, of the face, as well as their eyes, were capable of expressing every sentiment. Their teeth are beautifully white, extremely even, and of the usual number; their chin is round and a little prominent. Their ears, which are small, they perforate, and wear in them glass ornaments and rings of silver.

‘ The women are smaller than the men, and have a more round and delicate figure; but in the features of their faces there is little difference. Their upper lip is entirely tattooed of a blue colour, and they wear their hair long and flowing. Their dress is in nothing different from that of the men. The colour of the skin in both sexes is tawny, and their nails, which they suffer to grow to a considerable length, are a shade darker than those of Europeans. These islanders are extremely hairy, and have long bushy beards, which gives a grave and venerable aspect, particularly to the old men, who appeared to be held in great respect by the younger part of the inhabitants. The hair of the head in general is black, smooth, and moderately strong; but in some it is chestnut; they all wear it round, about six inches long behind, and cut into a brush on the forehead and temples.

‘ Their dress consists of a kind of cassock or gown, the fore-parts of which wrap over each other, and which is fastened by small buttons or strings, and a girdle placed above the hips. This gown is made of skin, or of quilted nankeen, a stuff which they fabricate of the bark of the willow. It reaches to the calf of the leg, and sometimes lower, and supercedes the necessity of drawers. Some wear seal-skin boots, the foot of which, in form and workmanship, resembles the Chinese shoe; but the majority have no covering either

for the feet or the head, a bandage of bear's skin excepted, which a few wear round the head, rather as an ornament than a defence, either against the cold or the sun.

' Like the lower classes of the Chinese, they have all a girdle round the loins, from which they suspend their dagger, as a defence against bears, and several small pockets for their flint and steel, their pipe and tobacco-box, smoking among them being a general practice.' Vol. ii. p. 381.

These islanders appear to be active and ingenious; and they have a commercial intercourse with other nations, though the merchandise they can offer, and its returns, are not very valuable. The description of the Tartars of the opposite coast forms a striking contrast.

' These Tartars are inferior to the natives of Tchoka in height as well as strength, and their features are less regular and agreeable. Their complexion is not so dark, and those parts of the skin usually covered are even tolerably white. The hair of the head too is less thick, and on the chin and upper lip they have very little beard, whereas the islanders of Tchoka, as we observed before, are of a strong muscular make, and have more hair on their bodies than even Europeans. These differences in the constitution of the two people seem to indicate an essential difference of species; though they live under the same climate, and their manners and modes of life are analogous, or, at least, nearly so.

' The women are ugly, and possess very little of that characteristic mildness of feature, which in general distinguishes the sex. They have a flat face, small round eyes, broad and high cheeks, a large head, well-shaped neck, and the extremities of the body small, but finely proportioned.

' The general height of the men is about four feet nine or ten inches. The head is uncommonly large in proportion to the rest of the body; the face flat and almost square; the forehead small, round, and a little depressed backwards; the eye-brows, which are faintly marked, are of a black or chestnut colour, as is also the hair; the eyes are small and level with the face; the eye-lids are so little divided, that when open they are stretched at the corners; the nose is short, and so flat at the root as to be hardly perceptible; the cheeks are large and swelled out, the mouth wide, the lips thick and of a dull red, the teeth small and even, but very subject to decay, the chin nearly flat, the extremities of the body small, and the muscles scarcely apparent. This disproportion of parts excludes elegance of form, as well as delicacy of features, and these people therefore are the ugliest and most mean-looking race I have seen in either hemisphere.

' Although these Tartars, and the natives of Tchoka, have both arrived at a tolerable degree of civilisation and politeness, they are unacquainted with agriculture, and live in a most filthy manner.

During the season of summer their principal food is fresh fish, and in winter, fish that has been smoked, or dried on wooden frames, not unlike those of our tenter-grounds. The method in which they prepare their fish is as follows: they first cut off the head, then gut them, take out the bones, hang the fish up to dry, and afterwards collect them into heaps, and preserve them in store-houses, similar to those of the island of Tchoka.' Vol. ii. p. 386.

In the journal of the excursion of Messrs. Lamanon and Monge to the Peak of Teneriffe, the experiments are new, but seem to have been made in haste, and are not very consistent. The air was exceedingly dry, when the sky was not cloudy, and evaporation was found to be rapid. Volatiles in general retained their usual pungency: the fuming liquor of Boyle, alone, lost some portion of its energy. Yet the separation of volatile alkali from sal-ammoniac, by means of fixed alkali, was slow. These circumstances are not perfectly reconcileable. We can easily see, that evaporation and the apparent pungency of vapours may not follow the same scale; but the separation of volatile alkali ought to keep pace with the pungency of the volatile salts already procured, unless the common moisture of the atmosphere has some share, contrary to the opinion of chemists, in the first process.

The éloge of Lamanon is written with the same eager zeal, the same warm enthusiasm of friendship, which usually appear in the biographical sketches of the French memoirs. He was an able philosopher, and seems to have been honest and disinterested; but his present panegyrist was unable to discriminate his philosophical talents, as he is evidently unacquainted with the subjects of which he speaks. The fate of Lamanon was owing to his implicit attachment to the supposed virtues of savages: 'they are better (said he to la Pérouse, the evening before the fatal event) than ourselves.'

In M. Rollin's dissertation on the inhabitants of Easter island, the men are said to be stout, neither giants nor dwarfs, as they have been represented by different authors. Their countenances resemble those of Europeans, except in colour; and the women require only a little ruddiness to be styled beautiful. Their figure is full and well-turned, their hair fine, and their appearance attractive. The men are circumcised, and seem to live in complete anarchy. They are not destitute of industry or ingenuity.

From the observations of the same writer on the physiology and pathology of the natives of America, we will extract the description of those of Chili.

'The bodily conformation of these people presents nothing remarkable. Their stature, in general, is lower than that of the French, and they appear also to be much less robust; but they sup-

port with great courage the fatigues of war and all its concomitant privations. On many occasions they have checked the progress of the Spanish arms, and sometimes even triumphed over them. Their history abounds with instances of bravery, which have obtained for them, from the proudest Spaniards, the honourable title of Intrepid Indians (*Indios Bravos*); and the present race are still animated by the remembrance of the glorious deeds of their ancestors.

‘ In the physiognomy of almost every individual of this nation, we may remark a characteristic sameness. The face is broader and rounder than that of Europeans, and the features are coarser. Their eyes are small, dull, black, and sunk in the sockets, the forehead low, the eye-brows black and bushy, the nose short and flattened, the cheek bones high, the lips thick, the mouth wide, the chin small, and the ears of the usual form.

‘ The women are short, ill made, and of a disgusting physiognomy. I did not observe a single instance of that mildness of feature and elegance of form, by which the sex is in general characterised.

‘ Both the men and women perforate the cartilage of the nose and ears, which they ornament with trinkets of glass, or mother-of-pearl, of different forms. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, and that of their nails nearly the same, but a little lighter. The hair of both is black, strong, and exceedingly thick. The men have little beard, but their arm-pits and the parts of sex are amply provided with hair, while those of most of the women are bare.’
Vol. ii. P. 354.

The Californians are taller and more robust, but less brave, and more indolent. The women have finer forms, but are in no other respect superior. The inhabitants of the Port of the French are taller and stronger than the Californians, and have more agreeable persons. In courage and intellect also, they are said to excel them. Their complexion is olive, and their hair less coarse and black than that of the Southern Americans. The Americans in general M. Rollin considers as by no means a degenerate race; but he adds nothing of importance to their pathology. The venereal disease seems to have been unknown in California before the intercourse of the inhabitants with the Europeans: it is cured by warm sand baths, with the assistance of a sudorific plant, called by the Spaniards *gouvernante*, which is particularly described.

The insects mentioned by la Martinière are curious. The account of a species of pennatula or lernæa, a parasitic insect, is particularly so. The following description, if fancy is not predominant in it, deserves great attention.

‘ Of all the insects which I have delineated, the simplest, and those which have afforded me the greatest pleasure, are represented

in fig. 12. They are mere oval bodies, perfectly similar to a soap bubble, and are disposed in groups of three, five, six, and nine; but there are some also that are solitary. When these collections of globules were put into a glass filled with sea water, they described a circle with great velocity round the glass, by a common movement, in which each individual participated by merely compressing the sides of it's body, the effect probably of the re-action of the air with which they were filled. It is, however, difficult to conceive how these animals, distinct from each other, for they may be readily separated without deranging their œconomy, can so perfectly understand one another as to concur in a common motion. These considerations, together with the form of the animal, brought to my mind, with pleasure and satisfaction, the ingenious system of Buffon, and led me to hope, that I was about to behold one of the most wonderful phænomena of nature, supposing that these molecules, then occupied in increasing or diminishing their number, or performing their revolutions in my glass, would soon assume the form of some new animal, of which they were the living substance. My impatience induced me to separate two individuals from the most numerous cluster, conceiving that this number would, perhaps, be more favourable to the metamorphoses: but my hopes were disappointed. These two, however, I examined with the greatest attention in their separated state, and the following is an account of their proceedings. Like two wrestlers, of equal strength and activity, and panting for victory, they immediately rushed forwards and attacked each other. Sometimes one would dive below, and the other ascend to the surface of the water; one describe a circle, and the other remain at rest in the centre, watching for a favourable opportunity. Each seemed to foresee and to counteract the stratagems of it's antagonist: their courage, in the mean time, continued to increase, till at length their movements were so rapid, I could no longer distinguish one from the other. I was anxious to discover which would be the conqueror; but, tired with watching, I left them in the heat of the contest, and on my return, soon after, I found them united as before, and amicably moving round the glass by their common exertions. I shall often reflect with pleasure on these little molecules, from the agreeable entertainment they afforded me.' Vol. ii. P. 377.

M. Monneron's observations on different places, with the remarks of la Pérouse, display our voyagers in a new light. Even while they were received as friends, and gratified with refreshments of every kind, their eyes were employed in detecting the weaker sides of each fortress and island, and their minds in planning offensive operations. This conduct, we think, deserves strong censure. It must teach all nations, that with such visitants they cannot be safe, and will recall to

the minds of Englishmen the visit of la Fayette to our camps during the American war.

A disquisition on the anomia of Linnæus (the terebratula) is very ingenious. This animal, though supposed to have lived only in the ancient ocean, and to exist at present, exclusively, in a fossil state, has certainly been found alive by numerous naturalists. A small species of the cornu ammonis was also found by M. Lamanon, in the South Sea, between the tropics. The species, however, differs from the fossil.

The extracts from the correspondence are of little importance, if we except some of the letters of M. de la Martinière, and the remarks of la Pérouse on the prevention of the scurvy.

We must now leave this valuable and interesting voyage. We need not add to our former commendations of it; and we shall only express our pleasure at its being made so beautifully and completely *our own*.

The Works of Sir William Jones. (Continued from p. 130.)

WE have already glanced at the contents of these volumes, and connected them with the different periods of their author's life. We must now examine them more particularly, referring to our former volumes for an account of the works before published.

The papers belonging to the Asiatic Researches, which occupy the first and a part of the second volume, are new in the memory of our readers. Of the Persian Grammar, which was noticed in our XXXIIId volume, the merit is well known, and established by the concurrent testimonies of the best oriental scholars. The Commentaries on Asiatic Literature are equally well known, and their character firmly established.

Some parts of the third volume are new. Six charges to the grand jury, from 1783 to 1792, breathe the liberal and independent spirit of the author. The first is seemingly an address of form only. Sir William Jones was, at that time, little acquainted with the country; and he considered the virtues, and perhaps the talents of the Asiatics, in too favourable a light. In the second charge, he enlarges on the duties of grand jurors.—In one of his charges, he says,

‘ I consider slaves as servants under a contract, express or implied, and made either by themselves, or by such persons, as are authorized by nature or law, to contract for them, until they attain a due age to cancel or confirm any compact that may be disad-

vantageous to them : I have slaves, whom I rescued from death or misery, but consider them as other servants, and shall certainly tell them so, when they are old enough to comprehend the difference of the terms. Slaves, then, if so we must call them, ought not to be treated more severely than servants by the year or by the month; and the correction of them should ever be proportioned to their offence: that it should never be wanton or unjust, all must agree. Nevertheless, I am assured from evidence, which, though not all judicially taken, has the strongest operation on my belief, that the condition of slaves within our jurisdiction is beyond imagination deplorable; and that cruelties are daily practised on them, chiefly on those of the tenderest age and the weaker sex, which, if it would not give me pain to repeat, and you to hear, yet, for the honour of human nature, I should forbear to particularize: if I except the English from this censure, it is not through partial affection to my own countrymen, but because my information relates chiefly to people of other nations, who likewise call themselves Christians. Hardly a man or a woman exists in a corner of this populous town, who hath not at least one slave child, either purchased at a trifling price, or saved perhaps from a death, that might have been fortunate, for a life, that seldom fails of being miserable: many of you, I presume, have seen large boats filled with such children coming down the river for open sale at Calcutta; nor can you be ignorant, that most of them were stolen from their parents, or bought, perhaps, for a measure of rice in a time of scarcity, and that the sale itself is a defiance of this government, by violating one of its positive orders, which was made some years ago, after a consultation of the most reputable Hindus in Calcutta, who condemned such a traffic, as repugnant to their Sástra. The number of small houses in which these victims are pent, makes it, indeed, very difficult for the settlement at large to be apprized of their condition; and if the sufferers knew where or how to complain, their very complaints may expose them to still harsher treatment; to be tortured, if remanded, or, if set at liberty, to starve. Be not, however, discouraged by the difficulty of your inquiries: your vigilance cannot but surmount it; and one great example of a just punishment, not capital, will conduce more to the prevention of similar cruelties, than the strongest admonition or severest verbal reproof. Should the slave-holders, through hardness of heart or confidence in their places of concealment, persist in their crimes, you will convince them, that their punishment will certainly follow their offence, and the most hardened of them will, no doubt, discontinue the contest. Here, again, I may safely promise you, that, whatever the court can do in terminating this evil, will cheerfully be done; and if our concurrent labour should yet be found ineffectual, I confidently persuade myself, that such regulations of government will be adopted on our recommendation, as cannot fail of insuring future protection to the

injured, support to the weak, and some consolation at least to the wretched: but I once more adjure you to dismiss these observations from your mind, when you deliberate on the case of homicide, to consider them as pointed solely at acts of cruelty, which make life miserable without causing the loss of it, and to find such bills as you cannot avoid finding, according to the whole evidence before you, and to your opinion, after our directions, of the law resulting from it.' Vol. iii. p. 12.

The benevolence and good sense which distinguish these remarks must excuse the length of the extract.—The following observations on the Hindû opinions respecting an oath are curious.

'I need not exhort you in general to prevent perjured witnesses, and their suborners of every class or persuasion, but will detain you a few moments longer with a remark or two on such inhabitants of these provinces, as profess a belief in God, and in Mohammed, whom they call his prophet. All the learned lawyers of his religion, with whom I have conversed in different parts of India, have assured me with one voice, that an oath by a Musliman is not held binding on his conscience, unless it be taken in the express name of the Almighty, and that even then it is incomplete, unless the witness, after having given his evidence, swear again by the same awful name, that he has spoken nothing but the truth. Nor is this abstruse or refined learning, but generally known to Mohammedans of every degree, who are fully apprized, that an imprecation on themselves and their families, even with the Koran on their heads, is in fact no oath at all; and that, if, having sworn that they will speak truth, they still utter falsehoods, they can expiate their offence by certain religious austerities; but that, if they forswear themselves in regard to evidence already given, they cannot, except by the divine mercy, escape misery in this world and in the next: it were to be wished, that the power of absolution, assumed by the Romish priesthood, were at least equally limited. My inquiries into the Hindu laws have not yet enabled me to give perfect information on the subject of oaths by the believers in Brehmâ; but the first of their law-books, both in antiquity and authority, has been translated into Persian at my request; and thence I learn, that the mode of taking evidence from Hindus depends on the distinction of their casts, but that the punishment of false evidence extends rigourously to all, whether an oath be administered or not; and many Brâhmans, as well as other Hindus of rank, would rather perish than submit to the ceremony of touching the leaf of the tulasi, and the water of the Ganges, which their Sâstras either do not mention at all, or confine to petty causes. It is ordained in the book of Menu, that a witness shall turn his face to the east or to the north; and, as this rule, whatever may have given rise to it, is very ancient, a re-

vival of it may have no inconsiderable effect: according to the same legislator, "a Bráhmaṇ must be sworn by his credit, a Cshatri by his arms, a Vaishya by his grain, cattle and gold, and a Sudra by every crime that can be committed;" but the brevity of this text has made it obscure, and open to different interpretations. The subject is, therefore, difficult for want of accurate information, which, it is hoped, may in due time be procured, and made as public as possible. In general I observe, that the Hindu writers have exalted ideas of criminal justice, and, in their figurative style, introduce the person of punishment with great sublimity: "Punishment," say they, "with a black complexion and a red eye, inspires terror, but alarms the guilty only; punishment guards those who sleep, nourishes the people, secures the state from calamity, and produces the happiest consequences in a country, where it is justly inflicted; where unjustly, the magistrate cannot escape censure, nor the nation, adversity." Vol. iii. P. 14.

The low debaucheries, the dissipation, the tricks and impositions, among not only the inferior but the superior orders, form a dreadful picture of the state of society at Calcutta. But every large town, probably, is not very different: the eyes and the hands of justice want acuteness and length sufficient to penetrate every corner. The vigilance, the impartiality, and sometimes the severity of the court have, we find, suppressed (we speak indeed of a period subsequent to these charges) some of the worst excesses. To check the whole is perhaps beyond the powers of any judicature. The fifth charge is an able commentary on the oath of a grand juror; and it is so clear and judicious as to merit the attention of every one who is, or who may be, in that situation.

The correspondence with Fort William, which follows, relates to the compilation of a digest of Hindú laws, and the publication of the ordinances of Menu. It reflects no little honour on the governor and council, that the whole of the proposal was immediately acceded to, and on sir William, that he engaged personally in the laborious office of translator.

'The Institutes of Hindú Law, or the Ordinances of Menu, according to the Gloss of Calluca, comprising the Indian System of Duties, Religious and Civil,' were noticed in our XXIIId volume; and to that account we find nothing that we can add.

'The Mohammedan Law of Succession to the Property of Intestates,' is reprinted from the edition of Calcutta. It was ordered, that the decisions, respecting inheritance in Calcutta, should, if the parties were Mohammedans, be according to their laws and usages; and, one party only being a Mohammedan, according to the laws of the defendant. But it is

justly observed, that, if this order be obeyed, the usages must be known, and that no judge 'can hear and determine,' if he must receive the dictates of a native lawyer.

'The author, a native of Alrahaba, in Mesopotamia, was himself an imam; and his decisions are, on that account, considered as binding by the sect of Ali, which the Indian, as well as the Persian, Mahomedans profess; but Ibno'lmojakanna informs us, that he drew his knowledge from the fountain head, and has epitomised the system of Zaid, who was recommended by Mahomed himself as the surest interpreter of his laws, and who had been implicitly followed by Shafiei, the first writer on Mahomedan jurisprudence, in the eighth century of our era, and composer of the *Osúl*, or principles of law, with other tracts highly valued by the learned of his religion and country.

'Hence it is certain, that the *Bigyato'l báhith* may be cited, as a book of authority, in all the Musleman courts; and the European reader must not be surprised, to see such a work written in a kind of loose metre, and even in rhyme: a lawtract in verse conveys, indeed, rather a ludicrous idea, since poetry belongs to imagination, which law, whose province is pure reason, wholly excludes; but verse, as numberless instances prove, is not always poetry; and a regular measure is so considerable an aid to the memory, that, if the metrical abridgement of Coke's Reports were more accurate, and the couplets a little smoother, every student should be advised to get it by heart. I may add, without enlarging upon the Agathyrfi and the Turdetani, who, as we are told by Aristotle and Strabo, had laws in verse of the remotest antiquity, that the Alcoran itself, the great source of Mahomedan law, is composed in sentences not only modulated with art, but often exactly rhymed; so that in Asia this apology would have been needless. Verbal translations are generally naked and insipid, wholly destroying all the neatness and beauty of the original, yet retaining so much of the foreign idiom and manner, as to appear always uncouth, often ridiculous; but elegance, on a subject so delicate as law, must be sacrificed without mercy to exactness; and for this reason I have rendered the Arabian treatise, line for line, and word for word, with a fidelity almost religiously scrupulous,' Vol. iii. P. 470.

The substance of this treatise, as a didactic one, cannot be pleasing; and to the general reader it must be tedious. As a valuable system, however, of Mohammedan jurisprudence, it strongly claims the notice of every eastern lawyer. The arithmetical rules may be easily followed, and appear to be correct. They at least show that practical calculations are well understood in the east.

The *Sirajiyah* demands some share of our attention. It is the work of two authors, the Coke and Littleton of Arabia,

viz. Sirajuddin and Sharif. The works of each were blended in the translation executed by order of Mr. Hastings; and the opinions, or rather the explanations, of the translator are closely interwoven. From this, the present system is extracted. It is clear and judicious, and gives a favourable specimen of the juridical reasoning of the Arabians. That some idle fancies and false positions are intermixed, will not surprise those who are acquainted with the Koran, the exclusive source of what every Mohammedan thinks worthy of his notice or regard.—Some observations from the preface we will transcribe.

‘ Unless I am greatly deceived, the work, now presented to the publick, decides the question, which has been started, whether, by the Mogul constitution, the sovereign be not the sole proprietor of all the land in his empire, which he or his predecessors have not granted to a subject and his heirs; for nothing can be more certain, than that land, rents, and goods are, in the language of all Mohammedan lawyers, property alike alienable and inheritable; and so far is the sovereign from having any right of property in the goods or lands of his people, that even escheats are never appropriated to his use, but fall into a fund for the relief of the poor. Sharif expressly mentions fields and houses as inheritable and alienable property: he says, that a house, on which there is a lien, shall not be sold to defray even funeral expenses; that, if a man dig a well in his own field, and another man perish by falling into it, he incurs no guilt; but, if he had trespassed on the field of another man, and had been the occasion of death, he must pay the price of blood; that buildings and trees pass by a sale of land, though not conversely; and he always expresses what we call property by an emphatical word implying dominion. Such dominion, says he, may be acquired by the act of parties, as in the case of contracts, or, by the act of law, as in the case of descents; and, having observed, that freedom is the civil existence and life of a man, but slavery, his death and annihilation, he adds, because freedom establishes his right of property, which chiefly distinguishes man from other animals and from things inanimate; so that he would have considered subjects without property (which, as he says in another place, comprises every thing that a man may sell, or give, or leave for his heirs) as mere slaves without civil life: yet Sharif was beloved and rewarded by the very conqueror, from whom the imperial house of Dehli boasted of their descent. The Koran allots to certain kindred of the deceased specifick shares of what he left, without a syllable in the book, that intimates a shade of distinction between realty and personalty; there is therefore no such distinction, for interpreters must make none, where the law has not distinguished: as to Muhammed, he says in positive words, that if a man leave either property, or rights, they go to his heirs; and Sharif adds, that an heir succeeds to his ancestor’s estate with an absolute right of ownership, right of possession, and power of aliena-

tion. Now I am fully persuaded, that no Muselman prince, in any age or country, would have harboured a thought of controverting these authorities. Had the doctrine lately broached been suggested to the ferocious, but politick and religious, Omar, he would in his best mood have asked his counsellor sternly, whether he imagined himself wiser than God and his prophet, and, in one of his passionate sallies, would have spurned him as a blasphemer from his presence, had he been even his dearest friend or his ablest general: the placid and benevolent Ali would have given a harsh rebuke to such an adviser; and Aurangzib himself, the bloodiest of assassins and the most avaricious of men would not have adopted and proclaimed such an opinion, whatever his courtiers and slaves might have said, in their zeal to aggrandize their master, to a foreign physician and philosopher, who too hastily believed them, and ascribed to such a system all the desolation, of which he had been a witness. Conquest could have made no difference; for, either the law of the conquering nation was established in India, or that of the conquered was suffered to remain: if the first, the Koran and the dicta of Mohammed were fountains, too sacred to be violated, both of publick and private law; if the second, there is an end of the debate; for the old Hindus most assuredly were absolute proprietors of their land, though they called their soverieigns lords of the earth; as they gave the title of gods on earth to their Bráhmens, whom they punished, nevertheless, for theft with all due severity. Should it be urged, that, although an Indian prince may have no right, in his executive capacity, to the land of his subjects, yet, as the sole legislative power, he is above control; I answer firmly, that Indian princes never had, nor pretended to have, an unlimited legislative authority, but were always under the control of laws believed to be divine, with which they never claimed any power of dispensing.

Vol. iii. P. 511.

Of the work itself we cannot easily render any account interesting; but we will quote a part of the section on pregnancy.

‘The longest time of pregnancy is two years, according to Abu Hanífab (may God be merciful to him!) and his companions; and according to Laith, the son of Sâd Alfahmí (may God be merciful to him!) three years; and, according to Alsháfí (may God be merciful to him!) four years: but according to Alzuhri (may God be merciful to him!) seven years: and the shortest time for it is six months. There is reserved for the child in the womb, according to Abu Hanífab (may God be merciful to him!) the portion of four sons, or the portion of four daughters, whichever of the two is most; and there is given to the rest of the heirs the smallest of the portions; but, according to Muhammed (may God be merciful to him!) there is reserved the portion of three sons or of three daughters, whichever of the two is most: Laith, son of Sâd (may God be

gracious to him!) reports this opinion from him; but, by another report, there is reserved the portion of two sons; and one of the two opinions is that of Abu Yûsuf (may God be merciful to him!) as Hishâm reports it from him; but Alkhafsâf reports from Abu Yûsuf (may God be merciful to him!) that there should be reserved the share of one son or of one daughter; and, according to this, decisions are made; and security must be taken, according to his opinion. And, if the pregnancy was by the deceased, and the widow produce a child at the full time of the longest period allowed for pregnancy, or within it, and the woman hath not confessed her having broken her legal term of abstinence, that child shall inherit, and others may inherit from him; but, if she produce a child after the longest time of gestation, he shall not inherit, nor shall others inherit from him; and if the pregnancy was from another man than the deceased, and she, the kinswoman, produce a child in six months or less, he shall inherit; but, if she produce the child after the least period of gestation, he shall not inherit.' Vol. iii. P. 548.

Much of this juridical performance contains fractional calculations of the different shares; and the Arabians must be well skilled in this rule of arithmetic. Sir William's judicious and perspicuous commentary greatly facilitates these calculations. The precision of the legislator's reasoning is, in many parts, admirable.

The first part of the fourth volume contains the translation of the Speeches of Isæus, with a commentary; but this work was so fully considered in our XLVIIth volume, that we need not resume the subject. The Moallakat, or seven Arabian poems, follow: these we noticed in our LVIIth volume. Miscellaneous Poems, chiefly translations from the eastern languages which have been long known, are next inserted; and the only novelty which we have observed is the *Carmen ad Libertatem*. The following stanzas are elegant and spirited: the last line is almost prophetic.

‘ Tunc æstuentes ad mare Suevicum
 Fluctus ruebant tramite dissito,
 Quo belluosis horret Orcas
 Montibus et glaciata Thule.
 Sed mox resurgens oceanus manum
 Effert minacem; et, dum croceum æthera
 Scindunt percussis procellæ
 Fulguribus, valido tridente
 Divellit agros dissociabiles:
 Tunc enatabas, pulchra Britannia,
 Silvisque, et arvis, et sonoris
 Annibus egregiè triumphans.

Gemmata multâ tum Thetis insulâ
Risit: sacratis Mona, parens mea,
Ornata quercetis refulsit;
Et zephyro recreata Vestis.
Hæc factâ nutu, Diva potens, tuo:
Nam lassâ dulcis pomiferas Vagæ
Ripas, et undantis Sabrinæ,
Nobile perfugium, eligebas;
Remota Gallis:—Galli etenim truces,
(Psyche ut antehac barbari amabilem,)
Te reppulerunt exulantem;
Gens meritas luitura pœnas! Vol. iv. p. 580.

May the last lines be equally prophetic!—

‘Iam, veris instar, præniteas novo
Pacata vultu: Pax tibi sit comes;
Quæ blanda civilis duelli
Sopiat ignivomos dracones.
Cum transmarinis juncta sororibus,
Nectat choream læta Britannia.
Neu mitis absit, jam solutis
Mercibus, haud violanda Ierne.
O! quæ paratur copia fulminis,
Centum repositi navibus, improbos
Gallos et audaces Iberos,
Civibus haud nocitura, frangat.’ Vol. iv. p. 582.

The fifth volume contains the Life of Nadir Shah, in French, translated, as we have lately learned, during sir William's residence in the south of France. The French translation was noticed in our XXXIst volume, and the English, with the description of Asia, in our XXXVIIth volume. In these articles, our readers will find a full account of the origin of the remarkable request of the king of Denmark, and of the liberal and candid behaviour of sir William Jones.

The last volume is in a great measure new; but, as its contents are too numerous to be particularised in the present article, we will treat of them on another occasion, when the attention may be again awakened to the subject, unsated and unfatigued.

The Environs of London. By the Rev. Daniel Lysons, &c.
(Continued from p. 204.)

THIS concluding volume contains an account of the parishes in Hertfordshire, Essex, and Kent. It begins with Barnet.

'Near this town was fought, in the year 1471, the famous battle between the houses of York and Lancaster, which terminated in the defeat and death of the earl of Warwick, and established king Edward the Fourth upon the throne. An obelisk was erected near Barnet in the year 1740, by sir Jeremy Sambrook, in memory of this battle. Antiquaries have differed in their opinions, nevertheless, concerning its site, some supposing that it was fought near the obelisk; others, on Monkey Mead plain, more to the north, within Enfield chace.' Vol. iv. p. 1.

At Little Grove, in the parish of East Barnet, occurred a curious fact in natural history.

"The following account of a Canada goose is so extraordinary, that I am aware it would with difficulty gain credit, was not a whole parish able to vouch for the truth of it. The Canada geese are not fond of a poultry-yard, but are rather of a rambling disposition; one of these birds was observed, however, to attach itself, in the strongest and most affectionate manner, to the house-dog, would never quit the kennel except for the purpose of feeding, when it would return again immediately. It always sat by the dog, but never presumed to go into the kennel, except in rainy weather. Whenever the dog barked, the goose would cackle, and run at the person she supposed the dog barked at, and try to bite him by the heels. Sometimes she would attempt to feed with the dog; but this the dog, who treated his faithful companion rather with indifference, would not suffer. This bird would not go to roost with the others at night, unless-driven by main force; and when in the morning she was turned into the field, she would never stir from the yard-gate, but sit there the whole day in sight of the dog. At last, orders were given that she should be no longer molested, but suffered to accompany the dog as she liked: being thus left to herself, she ran about the yard with him all night; and what is particularly extraordinary, and can be attested by the whole parish, whenever the dog went out of the yard and ran into the village, the goose always accompanied him, contriving to keep up with him by the assistance of her wings, and in this way of running and flying, followed him all over the parish. This extraordinary affection of the goose towards the dog, which continued till his death, two years after it was first observed, is supposed to have originated from his having accidentally saved her from a fox in the very moment of distress. While the dog was ill, the goose never quitted him day nor night, not even to feed; and it was apprehended that she would have been starved to death, had not orders been given for a pan of corn to be set every day close to the kennel. At this time the goose generally sat in the kennel, and would not suffer any one to approach it, except the person who brought the dog's or her own food. The end of this faithful bird was melancholy; for when the dog died she would still keep possession of the

kennel, and a new house-dog being introduced, which in size and colour resembled that lately lost, the poor goose was unhappily deceived, and going into the kennel as usual, the new inhabitant seized her by the throat and killed her." A similar affection was observed between a cat and a pigeon some years ago, at the house of the late Robert James, esq. of Putney, with this difference that it appeared to be reciprocal. What rendered it more extraordinary was, that they were both found one day on the wall of the garden, and both became domesticated at Mr. James's, where they continued to be inseparable companions.' Vol. iv. p. 11.

In the survey of the parish of Eastham appears a memoir of an interesting personage.

' The parish-church, dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen, stands at some distance from the village, not far from the river Thames. It is built of stones and flint, and consists of a nave and two chancels: at the west end is a low square tower. The high chancel or upper chancel (in which is the communion table) is circular at the east end, and has narrow pointed windows. On the south side is a *piscina* with a double drain, divided by a column forming two plain Gothic arches, between which is a bracket for a lamp. Behind the communion table is a handsome monument (with the effigies of the deceased and his lady in kneeling attitudes) to the memory of Edmund Nevil, styled in the inscription " Lord Latimer, and earl of Westmorland, being the seventh of that family who had enjoyed the title." Beneath is an altar-tomb, covered with a slab of black marble, to the memory of lady Katherine Nevil, their daughter, who died unmarried, at the age of twenty-three, anno 1613. I suppose, that Edmund Nevil here buried was the same who obtained a general pardon from queen Elizabeth in 1585. It is probable that he was grandson (by one of his younger sons) of Ralph earl of Westmorland, and cousin-german of Charles, the sixth earl, who was attainted about the year 1570, and died in Flanders, anno 1584. Edmund Nevil having assumed the title of earl of Westmorland, notwithstanding the attainder, was several times summoned to appear before the lords commissioners, for executing the office of earl marshal. On the 2d of March 1605, he appeared before them at Whitehall by his attorney, who prayed for farther time; upon which the hearing of his cause was put off till the Wednesday in Easter week ensuing. The farther proceedings are not recorded, but it is certain that his title was not allowed; in allusion to which his epitaph has the following lines:

" From princely and from honorable blood,
By true succession was my high descent;
Malignant crosses oft oppos'd my good,
And adverse chance my state did circumvent."

I have not found the date of his death. Jane, his widow, died at

Mile-end, in the year 1647. In her will she styles herself dame Jane Nevil, countess of Westmorland, relict of the right honourable Edmund Nevil de Latimer, claiming of right to be, and generally reputed to be, earl of Westmorland. She directs that her body should be decently buried at Eastham; and that a hearse of velvet should be put up in the church, and covered with escutcheons. She bequeaths 100*l.* per annum, out of the pension granted her by king James, to her daughter dame Dorothy, wife of Arthur Hill, esq.; who appears to have been her only surviving child.' Vol. iv. p. 141.

Woodford presents the following anecdotes:

'In one of the registers is an account of all the collections for charitable purposes (in the nature of briefs) made at Woodford during a great part of the last century, commencing in 1643. One of the most remarkable is that for the benefit of king Charles's chaplains and domestic servants, collected about twelve months after he was beheaded. Their petition states, that they, the late king's majesty's domestic servants, to the number of 40, being in present distress, by reason that their sole dependence was upon the late king's majesty, and that their means from the revenue of his late majesty were still detained, upon some reasons known to the committee, and could not be paid; they were, therefore, so necessitated, that they could in nowise subsist for the maintenance of themselves, their wives, and families; and they prayed the charity of all good Christians.—Signed, Thomas Bunbury, S. T. D.; John Manby, S. T. D.; Geo. White, S. T. D.; Emanuel Utye, S. T. D.; Matthew Griffith, S. T. D.; Nathaniel Barnard, S. T. D.; Thomas Jones, S. T. D.; Thomas Warmester, S. T. D.; Paul Knell, M. A.; John Cooke; Ja. Armachensis; Robert Kilmowensis; B. Sarum; Edward Spencer, knt. &c. The sum collected for them at Woodford was 1*l.* 7*s.* 0½*d.* Among other objects of charity, recommended to public notice, the most singular are,

'Demetrius Christophus, a poor Greek, who had suffered losses by sea to the amount of 1000*l.* and upwards, anno 1643; (collected 8*s.* 5*d.*).

'The town of Douglas in the Isle of Man, burnt by Turkish pirates, 1644; (collected 1*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*).

'Dr. Nathaniel Dasserius, an aged and reverend divine, a preacher of God's word to the Greeks, in the city of Sancta Manera, in the county of Peloponesus, 1644; (collected 9*s.*).

'Thomas Francis, his wife and children, who were robbed by the rebels in Ireland, three of their children having been starved to death, 1644; (collected 13*s.*).

'David Hastiville, knight, late of the city of Rouen in Normandy, nobly descended, and late called by the name of reverend father archangel of Hastiville, abbot and baron of the vale of Holy Cross; prior of Beaulieu, general of the order of friars of St. Renaldus, alias

Camadules, in all France; who hath from thence forsaken all his honours and dignities only for the gospel, 1645; (collected 8s.).

‘ Divers ministers, and other distressed families, driven into the straightened garrison of Pembroke, and several imprisonments, most of them under the earl of Carbery first, and now at last undergone the loss of all that they had by general Gerrard, only escaping with their lives, 1645; (collected 8s. 10d.).

‘ Poor English Irish protestants, fled and driven away out of the kingdom of Ireland, by the inhuman and bloody rebels, which have lost their estates and livelihoods, and are now residing in and about the town of Barnstaple in Devonshire, 1647; (collected 17s.).

‘ Poor protestants, driven out of Ireland, 1647; (collected on the thanksgiving-day for God's great blessing upon the parliament's forces in Munster, under lord Inchiquin; 5s.).

‘ Bridgenorth, upper town, burnt down, (1648,) with the college, church, and almshouses, damage 90,000l.; (collected 8s. 11d.).

‘ Fire at Farringdon and Westbrook, 1649, damages 56,000l. (collected 11s. 5d.).

‘ The county of Lancaster being visited with sword, pestilence, and famine, all at once afflicting that country above other parts of the nation, by means whereof many people, formerly of good fashion and esteem, besides a great number of common beggars, have perished and died, 1649; (collected 15s.).

‘ Michael Beir Alexander, a Christian, born near Jerusalem, who had met with a loss at sea, 1650.

‘ John Cheynell, late minister of Beedon, Bucks, who had been continually plundered by both armies, “ and had lost two sons, gracious young men, cruelly murdered, himself having been sequestered by false information,” 1652; (collected 15s. 8½d.).

‘ For two churches at York, and one at Pontefract, demolished in the late civil wars by the violence of cannon-shot, 1661.

‘ Mr. Philip Dandulo, a Turk by nation, by profession a Mahometan; by God's gracious providence and mercy, converted to the Christian faith, by the endeavours of Dr. Wild, Dr. Warmester, Mr. Christopher, and Dr. Gunning, 1661; (collected 5s. 8d.).’
Vol. iv. P. 284.

We cannot withhold from the curiosity of our readers the account of that singular people the gypsies, inserted under the head of Beckenham in Kent.

“ Margaret Finch, buried Oct. 24, 1740.” This remarkable person lived to the age of 109 years. She was one of the people called gypsies, and had the title of their queen. After travelling over various parts of the kingdom, during the greater part of a century, she settled at Norwood; whither her great age, and the fame of her fortune-telling, attracted numerous visitors. From a habit of sitting on the ground, with her chin resting on her knees, the sinews

at length became so contracted, that she could not rise from that posture; after her death they were obliged to inclose her body in a deep square box. Her funeral was attended by two mourning coaches; a sermon was preached upon the occasion, and a great concourse of people attended the ceremony. There is an engraved portrait of Margaret Finch, from a drawing made in 1739. Her picture adorns the sign-post of a house of public entertainment in Norwood, called the Gipsy-house. In an adjoining cottage lives an old woman, granddaughter of queen Margaret, who inherits her title. She is niece of queen Bridget, who was buried at Dulwich in 1768. Her rank seems to be merely titular; I do not find that the gipsies pay her any particular respect; or that she differs in any other respect, than that of being a householder, from the rest of her tribe. A few leading facts relating to this extraordinary race of people, who are scattered over most parts of Europe, Asia, and America, will, it is presumed, not be unacceptable in this place to my readers. The gipsies are called, on most parts of the continent, *cingari*, or *zingari*; the Spaniards call them *gitanos*. It is not certain when they first appeared in Europe; but mention is made of them in Hungary and Germany, so early as the year 1417. Within ten years afterwards, we hear of them in France, Switzerland, and Italy. The date of their arrival in England is more uncertain; it is most probable, that it was not till nearly a century afterwards. In the year 1530, they are thus spoken of in the penal statutes: "Forasmuch as before this time, divers and many outlandish people, calling themselves Egyptians, using no craft nor feat of merchandize, have come into this realm, and gone from shire to shire, and place to place, in great company, and used great subtil and crafty means to deceive the people; bearing them in hand that they, by palmistry, could tell men's and women's fortunes; and so, many times, by craft and subtilty, have deceived the people of their money; and also have committed many heinous felonies and robberies, to the great hurt and deceit of the people they have come among," &c. This is the preamble to an act, by which the gipsies were ordered to quit the realm under heavy penalties. Two subsequent acts, passed in 1555 and 1563, made it death for them to remain in the kingdom; and it remains on record, that thirteen were executed under these acts, at the assizes for the county of Suffolk, a few years before the restoration. It was not till about the year 1783 that they were repealed. The gipsies were expelled France in 1560; and Spain in 1591: but it does not appear that they have been extirpated in any country. Their collective numbers, in every quarter of the globe, have been calculated at 7 or 800,000. They are most numerous in Asia, and in the northern parts of Europe. Various have been the opinions relating to their origin. That they came from Egypt, has been the most prevalent: this opinion (which has procured them here the name of gipsies, and in Spain that of *gitanos*) arose from some of the first who ar-

rived in Europe pretending that they came from that country; which they did, perhaps, to heighten their reputation for skill in palmistry and the occult sciences. It is now, I believe, pretty generally agreed, that they came originally from Hindostan; since their language so far coincides with the Hindostanic, that even now, after a lapse of more than three centuries, during which they have been dispersed in various foreign countries, nearly one-half of their words are precisely those of Hindostan; and scarcely any variation is to be found in vocabularies procured from the gipsies in Turkey, Hungary, Germany, and those in England. Their manners, for the most part, coincide, as well as their language, in every quarter of the globe where they are found; being the same idle, wandering set of beings, and seldom professing any ostensible mode of livelihood, except that of fortune-telling. Their religion is always that of the country in which they reside; and though they are no great frequenters either of mosques or churches, they generally conform to rites and ceremonies as they find them established. Upon the whole, we may certainly, as Grellman says, "regard the gipsies as a singular phenomenon in Europe; for the space of between three and four hundred years they have gone wandering about like pilgrims and strangers, yet neither time nor example has made in them any alteration; they remain ever, and every where, what their fathers were; Africa makes them no blacker, nor does Europe make them whiter." Vol. iv. p. 301.

The date here assigned for their appearance in England must be too late; for they are known, from a letter of James IV. to the king of Denmark, to have existed in Scotland as early as 1506; and they may be supposed to have passed thither from England. Abundance of curious matter concerning the zingari, or gypsies, may be found in the *Meditationes Historicae* of Camerarius.

In treating of the parish of St. Nicholas, Deptford, Mr. Lysons gives some account of the residence of the celebrated Evelyn.

' Sayes-court was the residence of sir Richard Browne the elder and younger, and afterwards of Mr. Evelyn, son-in-law of the latter; a gentleman celebrated for his general knowledge and various accomplishments. He was particularly skilled in gardening, painting, engraving, architecture, and the science of medals; on all which, as well as on other subjects, he published treatises. Sir Richard Browne, being absent at the court of France, gave up Sayes-court to his son-in-law, who came to reside there in 1651. Being no friend to the then ruling powers, he spent his time in retirement at this his favourite spot, studying the practical part of gardening, the culture of trees, and the propagation of timber; which he has treated of at large in his *Sylva*. His gardens at this place are said to have been the wonder and admiration of the greatest and

most judicious men of his time; in the life of lord keeper Guildford, they are described as "most boscarefque, being, as it were, an exemplar of his book of forest trees." What he most prided himself upon was a hedge of holly, which he thus describes, with a great degree of enthusiasm, in one of the later editions of his *Sylva*, published by himself, in 1704: "Is there under heaven a more glorious and refreshing object of the kind, than an impregnable hedge of about four hundred feet in length, nine feet high, and five in diameter; which I can shew in my now ruined garden at Sayes-court, (thanks to the czar of Muscovy,) at any time of the year, glittering with its armed and varnished leaves; the taller standards, at orderly distances, blushing with their natural coral? It mocks the rudest assaults of the weather, beasts, or hedge-breakers—*Et illum nemo impune laceffit.*" It is said that Peter the Great, czar of Muscovy, to whom Mr. Evelyn lent his place at Sayes-court whilst he was studying naval architecture in the adjoining dockyard, in 1698, used to amuse himself with being wheeled through this hedge in a wheelbarrow. Though the royal tenant paid very little respect either to his landlord's trees or hedges, I think, by Mr. Evelyn's description of his holly, and the exulting manner in which he speaks of its being proof against the rudest hedge-breakers, that the czar rather chose any other hedge than this for his amusement. In the *Philosophical Transactions* of the year 1683, there is a letter from Mr. Evelyn, giving an account, by desire of the Royal Society, of the damage done in his garden by the frost the preceding winter; but as his letter is dated the 14th of April, little is to be gathered from it, as it is most probable that the cork trees, and many others which he mentions as looking very suspiciously, recovered. He laments the damage done to his beautiful holly-hedge; but from the manner in which he speaks of it in 1704, it is evident that it was not materially injured. A tortoise, which had lived in his garden many winters, would, it is probable, have escaped, but was found dead, having been obstructed by a vine root from burying himself to his usual depth. There is not the least trace now, either of the house or gardens at Sayes-court; some of the garden walls only, with some brick piers, are remaining. The house was pulled down in 1728 or 1729, and the workhouse built on its site. Vol. iv. p. 362.

The society of the Trinity-house forms another interesting article.

' The society of the Trinity-house, founded by sir Thomas Spert, comptroller of the navy to Henry VIII. was first established at this place, and incorporated by the name of "the master, warden, and assistants of the guild or fraternity of the most glorious and undivided Trinity, and of St. Clement, in the parish of Deptford Strond, in the county of Kent." This corporation consists of a master, deputy-master, 31 elder brethren, and an unlimited number

of inferior members; out of whom the elder brethren are elected. Among these are always some of the great officers of state; the remainder are captains, either in the royal navy or of merchantmen. This corporation having for its object the increase and encouragement of navigation, the good government of seamen, and the security of merchant-ships upon the coasts; is invested with the powers of examining the mathematical classes in Christ's hospital; of examining and licensing masters of ships; appointing pilots, both for the royal navy and merchant-ships; settling the rates of pilotage; erecting, ordering, and maintaining light-houses, buoys, beacons, and other sea-marks, for the better security of ships; granting licences to seamen to row on the Thames, in time of peace, or when past service; licensing aliens to serve on board English ships; hearing and determining complaints of officers and seamen in the merchant service, subject to an appeal to the admiralty. The revenue of the corporation, which arises from tonnage, ballastage, beaconage, &c.; and from contingent benefactions, is applied (after defraying the expences of light-houses, &c.) to the relief of decayed seamen, their widows and orphans. The members of this corporation enjoy various privileges and immunities. The ancient hall at Deptford, where their meetings were formerly held, was pulled down about the year 1787, and an elegant building erected for that purpose in London, near the Tower. The arms of this corporation are, Arg. a cross G. between four ships of three masts, in full sail, proper.

There are two hospitals at Deptford belonging to the corporation of the Trinity-house. The old hospital, of which there is a view engraved by Gribelin, in 1701, was built in the reign of Henry VIII. It consisted originally of 21 apartments; but, being pulled down and rebuilt in 1788, the number was increased to 25. This hospital adjoins to the churchyard. The other, which is in Church street, was built about the latter end of the last century. Sir Richard Browne, in 1672, gave the ground, after the expiration of a short term; and capt. William Maples, in 1680, gave 1300l. towards the building. This hospital consists of 56 apartments, forming a spacious quadrangle; in the centre of which is placed a statue of capt. Maples. On the east side, opposite the entrance, is a plain building, which serves both for a chapel and a hall. Here the brethren of the Trinity-house meet annually on Trinity Monday, and afterwards go to St. Nicholas's church, where they hear divine service and a sermon. The pensioners, in both hospitals, consist of decayed pilots and masters of ships, or their widows. The single men and widows receive about 18l. per annum; the married men about 28l. Vol. iv. p. 379.

Under the head Greenwich, the royal observatory forms a prominent feature; but we have only room for a part of our author's account.

‘ On the eminence in Greenwich-park, where now stands the observatory, was a tower, built by Humphrey duke of Gloucester, and repaired or rebuilt by Henry VIII. in 1526. This tower was sometimes a habitation for the younger branches of the royal family; sometimes the residence of a favourite mistress; sometimes a prison; and sometimes a place of defence. Mary of York, fifth daughter of Edward IV. (betrothed to the king of Denmark), died at the tower in Greenwich-park, anno 1482. “The king,” (Henry VIII.) says Puttenham, in his *Art of English Poesy*, “having Flamock with him in his barge going from Westminster to Greenwich, to visit a fayre lady whom the king loved, who was lodged in the tower of the park; the king coming within sight of the tower, and being disposed to be merie, said, Flamock, let us run.” In queen Elizabeth’s time, this tower was called Mirefleur; and is supposed, says Hentzner, to have been that mentioned in *Amadis de Gaul*. The earl of Leicester was confined in this tower, when he had incurred the queen’s displeasure by marrying the countess of Essex. Henry, the learned earl of Northampton, had a grant from king James of the castle in Greenwich-park, which he enlarged and beautified; making it his chief residence. Elizabeth countess of Suffolk died at the tower in Greenwich-park, in 1633. In 1642, being then called Greenwich-castle, it was thought of so much consequence as a place of strength, that immediate steps were ordered to be taken for securing it. Some years after the restoration, king Charles II. (anno 1675) pulled down the old tower, and founded on its site a royal observatory. The foundation owed its origin to the following circumstance: Monsieur de St. Pierre, a Frenchman, who came to London in 1675, having demanded a reward from king Charles II. for his discovery of a method of finding the longitude by the moon’s distance from a star, a commission was appointed to examine into his pretensions. Mr. Flamsteed, who was appointed one of the commissioners, furnished St. Pierre with certain *data* of observation by which to calculate the longitude of a given place. This he was unable to do; but excused himself by asserting that the *data* were false; Mr. Flamsteed contended that they were true, but allowed that nothing certain could be deduced from them, for want of more exact tables of the moon, and more correct places of the fixed stars, than Tycho’s observations, made with plain sight, afforded. This being made known to the king, he declared that his pilots and sailors should not want such an assistance. He resolved therefore to found an observatory, for the purpose of ascertaining the motions of the moon, and the places of the fixed stars, as a means of discovering that great *desideratum*, the longitude at sea; and Flamsteed, who was recommended to his majesty by sir Jonas Moor, was appointed astronomer royal. Several places were talked of for the site of the observatory, as Hyde-park, the Polemical college at Chelsea, (now the hospital,) &c. Mr. Flamsteed went to see Chelsea college, and

approved of it; but fir Christopher Wren having recommended Greenwich-castle, that situation was preferred. The king allowed gool. in money towards the building; bricks from Tilbury-fort, where there was a spare stock, and materials from the castle which was pulled down; promising to grant any thing farther that should be necessary. The foundation was laid August 10, 1675; and in the month of August the next year, Flamsteed was put in possession of the observatory, which, from him, has acquired the name of Flamsteed-house.' Vol. iv. p. 454.

From the calculations, p. 572, it appears that the population of the district, twelve miles around London, amounts to 395,924 persons.

Upon the whole, great applause is due to Mr. Lysons, for the unremitted labour with which he has accomplished so multifarious a design; a labour the more fatiguing from the minute research necessary into parish-records, family-papers, and other documents, not the most alluring even to a plodding antiquary. His work will ever hold a distinguished rank among the collections of English topography, and will stand unrivaled as a book of reference.

As many eminent writers have condescended to abridge their own works, may we recommend to Mr. Lysons an abstract of the most interesting and entertaining particulars in a popular form?

Goetz of Berlichingen, with the Iron Hand: a Tragedy. Translated from the German of Goëthé, Author of "the Sorrows of Werter," &c. By William Scott, Esq. Advocate, Edinburgh. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Bell. 1799.

GOETZ of Berlichingen flourished in the fifteenth century, at that period when the edict of Maximilian deprived the free knights of their most important privileges. A succinct account of these privileges, and of the vices and virtues which they encouraged, is prefixed to the play. The piece is said to have been written as an imitation of Shakspeare: it has the irregularity of his historical dramas, the medley of character, and, we may add, the distinguishing and powerful genius. The Germans admire it with enthusiasm; for Goetz is the hero of their childhood; and we believe that no Englishman who is capable of understanding dramatic excellence can peruse it without delight.

The following scenes are in the castle of Goetz, when it is besieged. Their effect upon an audience may be conceived.

' Enter Lerse with a Bullet Mould.

' Lerse. Go, see for lead about the house—meanwhile I will

make a shift with this—(*Goes to the window, and takes out the lead frames.*) Every thing is fair. So it is in this world—no one knows what a thing may come to: the glazier that made these frames little knew that the work of his hands was to give some fellow his last head-ache; and the father that got me little thought that the fowls of heaven and the beasts of the field were to pick my bones.

‘ *Enter George with a Leaden Spout.*

‘ *George.* Here's lead for thee!—When we have used the half of it, there will none return to tell his majesty “we have not sped.”

‘ *Lerse (cutting it down).* A famous prize!

‘ *George.* The rain must seek some other way—But never mind that—a gallant trooper and a smart shower will always find their road. (*They cast balls.*)

‘ *Lerse.* Hold the crucible—(*Goes to the window.*) Yonder comes a fellow creeping forward with his pop-gun; he thinks our fire is spent—He shall have the bullet warm from the pan. (*He loads his carabine.*)

‘ *George (sets down the mould).* Let me see—

‘ *Lerse (fires from the window).* Yonder lies the game!

‘ *George.* One of them fired at me as I got out on the roof to get the spout—He killed a pigeon that sat near me; it fell into the spout—I thanked him for my dinner, and stepped in with the double booty. (*They cast balls.*)’ P. 129.

‘ *Goetz, Elizabeth, George, and Troopers at Table.*

‘ *Goetz.* Danger draws us together, my friends! Be cheery—don't forget the bottle! The flask is empty—Come, another, my dear wife!—(*Elizabeth shakes her head.*)—Is there no more?

‘ *Elizabeth (low).* Only one, which I set apart for you.

‘ *Goetz.* Not so, my love!—Bring it out; they need strengthening more than I.

‘ *Elizabeth.* Hand it from the cabinet.

‘ *Goetz.* It is the last, and I feel as if we need not spare it. It is long since I have been so much disposed for joy.—(*They fill.*) To the health of the emperor!

‘ *All.* Long live the emperor!

‘ *Goetz.* Be it our last word when we die! I love him, for our fate is similar; and I am happier than he.—He must direct his imperial squadrons against mice, while the rats gnaw his parchment edicts. I know he often wishes himself rather dead than to be the soul of such a crippled body as the empire. (*They fill.*)—It will go but once more round—And when our blood runs low, like this flask—when we pour out its last ebbing drop (*Empties the wine dropways into his goblet*), what then shall be our word?

‘ *George.* Freedom!

‘ *Goetz.* Freedom!

‘ *All.* Freedom !

‘ *Goetz.* And if that survives us, we shall die happy : our spirits shall see our sons, and the emperor of our sons, happy !—Did the servants of princes shew the same filial attachment to their masters as you to me—Did their masters serve the emperor as I would serve him—

‘ *George.* It is widely different.

‘ *Goetz.* Not so much so as would appear. Have I not known worthy men among the princes ? and can the breed be extinct ?—Men happy in their own minds and in their undertakings, that could bear a petty brother in their neighbourhood without feeling either dread or envy ; whose hearts were opened when they saw their table surrounded by their free equals, and who did not think free knights unfit company till they had degraded themselves by court homage.

‘ *George.* Have you known such princes ?

‘ *Goetz.* Well !—I recollect, when the landgrave of Hanau made a grand hunting-party, the princes and free feudatories enjoyed themselves under the open heaven, and the vassals were as happy as they ; it was no selfish masquerade, instituted for his own private pleasure or vanity—To see the great round-headed peasant lads and the pretty brown girls, the sturdy hinds, and the respectable ancients, all as happy as if they rejoiced in the pleasures of their master, which he shared with them under God’s free sky !

‘ *George.* He must have been such a master as you.

‘ *Goetz.* And shall we not hope that many such will rule together some future day—to whom reverence to the emperor, peace and friendship with neighbours, and the love of vassals shall be the best and dearest family treasure handed down from father to son ? Every one will then keep and improve his own, instead of reckoning nothing gained that is not ravaged from their neighbours.

‘ *George.* And shall we then have no skirmishing ?

‘ *Goetz.* Would to God there was no restless spirit in all Germany, and still we should have enough to do ! We might then chase the wolves from the cliffs, and bring our peaceable laborious neighbour a dish of game from the wood, and eat it together. Were that too little, we would join our brethren, and, like cherubims with flaming swords, defend the frontiers of the emperor against those wolves the Turks, against those foxes the French, and guard for our beloved emperor both extremities of his empire. There would be a life, George !—to risk one’s head for the safety of all Germany—(*George springs up*).—Whither away ?

‘ *George.* Alas ! I forgot we were besieged—besieged by that very emperor ; and before we can expose our lives in his defence, we must risk them for our liberty.’ P. 132.

But the spirit of the hero is at last broken. Vengeance, indeed, pursues the friend who has betrayed him ; but Goetz is overwhelmed with calamity ; and those who love him share

his ruin. We extract the concluding scene—a scene worthy of Goëthé.

' The Prison at Heilbron.—Goetz and Elizabeth.

' Elizabeth. I entreat thee, my dear husband, be comforted!—Thy silence distresses me—thou retirest within thyself. Come, let me see thy wounds; they mend daily—In this moody melancholy I know thee no longer!

' Goetz. If thou seekest Goetz, he is long since gone!—One by one have they robbed me of all I held dear—my hand, my property, my freedom, my renown!—My life! what is that to what I have lost?—What hear you of George? Is Lersé gone to enquire for George?

' Elizabeth. He is, my love!—Raise yourself—you will sit more easily.

' Goetz. Whom God hath struck down raises himself no more!—I best know the load I have to bear—Misfortune I am inured to support—But now it is not Weislingen alone, not the peasants alone, not the death of the emperor, or my wounds—It is the whole united—My hour is come! I had hoped it would have come only with my death—But his will be done!

' Elizabeth. Wilt thou eat any thing?

' Goetz. No, my love!—Does the sun shine without?

' Elizabeth. A fine spring day.

' Goetz. My love, wilt thou ask the keeper's permission for me to walk in his little garden for half an hour, to enjoy the clear face of heaven, the open air, and the blessed sun?

' Elizabeth. I will—and he will readily grant it.

' The Garden belonging to the Prison.—Lersé and Maria.

' Maria. Go, see how it stands with them. [Exit Lersé.]

' Enter Elizabeth and Keeper.

' Elizabeth (to the Keeper). God reward your kindness and mercy to my husband! [Exit Keeper.]—Maria, what bring'st thou?

' Maria. Safety to my brother!—But my heart is torn asunder—Weislingen is dead! poisoned by his wife.—My husband is in danger—the princes will be too powerful for him; they say he is surrounded and besieged.

' Elizabeth. Harken not to rumour; and let not Goetz remark aught.

' Maria. How is it with him?

' Elizabeth. I fear he will hardly long survive thy return! the hand of the Lord is heavy on him.—And George is dead!

' Maria. George!—The gallant boy!

' Elizabeth. When the miscreants were burning Miltenberg, his master sent him to check their villainy—At that moment a body of cavalry charged upon them; had they all behaved as George,

they would have given a good account of them—Many were killed! and poor George—he died the death of a cavalier!

‘ *Maria*. Does Goetz know it?

‘ *Elizabeth*. We conceal it from him—He asks me ten times a day about him, and sends me as often to see what is become of George. I fear his heart will not bear this last wound.

‘ *Maria*. O God! what are the hopes of this world!

‘ *Enter Goetz, Lerse, and Keepers*.

‘ *Goetz*. Almighty God! how well it is to be under thy heaven! How free! The trees put forth their buds, and all the world hopes.—Farewell, my children! my buds are crushed, my hope is in the grave!

‘ *Elizabeth*. Shall I not send Lerse to the cloister for thy son, that thou may’st see and bless him?

‘ *Goetz*. Leave him where he is—he needs not my blessing—he is holier than I.—Upon our wedding, Elizabeth, could I have thought I should die thus!—My old father blessed us, and a succession of noble and gallant sons arose at his prayer—Thou hast not heard him—I am the last.—Lerse, thy countenance cheers me in the hour of death, as in our most noble fights: then, my spirit encouraged yours; now, yours supports mine—Oh that I could but see George once more, to warm myself at his look!—You look down and weep—He is dead? George is dead?—Die, Goetz! Thou hast outlived thyself, outlived the noblest.—How died he?—Alas they took him at Miltenbergh, and he is executed?

‘ *Elizabeth*. No—he was slain there!—he defended his freedom like a lion.

‘ *Goetz*. God be praised!—He was the kindest youth under the sun, and a gallant—Now dismiss my soul—My poor wife! I leave thee in a wretched world. Lerse, forsake her not!—Lock your hearts carefully as your doors. The age of frankness and freedom is past—that of treachery begins. The worthless will gain the upper hand by cunning, and the noble will fall into their net.—*Maria*, God restore thy husband to thee!—may he never fall the deeper for having risen so high!—Selbiss is dead—and the good emperor—and my George—Give me some water!—Heavenly sky!—Freedom! freedom!

[*He dies*.

‘ *Elizabeth*. Only above! above with thee!—The world is a prison-house.

‘ *Maria*. Gallant and gentle!—Woe to this age that has lost thee!

‘ *Lerse*. And woe to the future, that cannot know thee!’ p. 197.

This is one of those plays which may perhaps on the first perusal disappoint a common reader, as he will find in it no intrigue, no pretty sentences or sentiments. It is, however, full of genius, and true to nature; and the more it is read, the more it must be admired.

There are persons who affect to despise the German dramas; but, except the best plays of our unrivaled Shakspeare, we know of none comparable to them. The Greek tragedies extort a cold applause; Frenchmen and Italians are pleased with French and Italian plays; and many a vain attempt has been made in England to excite a taste for their languid declamation and everlasting intrigue: but, while those are praised and neglected, the German plays are continually read, and, though faulty and incorrect, daily become more popular.

Critical Disquisitions on the Eighteenth Chapter of Isaiah. In a Letter to Edward King, Esq. F. R. S. A. S. By Samuel Lord Bishop of Rochester, F. R. S. A. S. 4to. 4s. sewed. Robson. 1799.

UNDER the title of *Critical Disquisitions* we here find a mixture of politics, religion, and criticism. Of the last we cannot speak highly in commendation; and, as the writer deems critical learning, 'of all learning that a man may possess of itself and for its own sake, of the least value,' he will not be displeased if we ascribe little value to the verbal criticism displayed in his notes on a very difficult chapter of Isaiah. As a prelude to these notes, some trite remarks are made upon the translations of the Bible which the author used; and his mode of investigating the sense of scripture, which is not new or remarkable, is given, we presume, to raise the expectations of an English reader rather than to convey information to a student of the Hebrew. Every biblical scholar knows that ancient and modern versions ought to be consulted with regard to difficult passages of scripture; and, among the different aids afforded to us, it is proper to pay some attention to the Masoretic points, which this writer conceives to be of no authority, and to the Jewish commentaries, which he entirely neglects.

That our readers may have a true conception of the labour bestowed on Isaiah in this work, we will select some parts of the performance.

' 1. Ho! Land spreading wide the shadow of (thy) wings, which art beyond the rivers of Cush.

' 2. Accustomed to send messengers by sea,

' Even in bulrush-vessels, upon the surface of the waters!

' Go swift messengers,

' Unto a nation dragged away and plucked,

' Unto a people wonderful from their beginning hitherto,

' A nation expecting, expecting, and trampled under foot,

' Whose land rivers have spoiled.

- ' 3. All the inhabitants of the world, and dwellers upon earth
- ' Shall see the lifting up, as it were, of a banner upon the mountains
- ' And shall hear the sounding as it were of a trumpet.
- ' 4. For thus saith Jehovah unto me :
- ' I will sit still (but I will keep my eye upon my prepared habitation.)
- ' As the parching heat just before lightning,
- ' As the dewy cloud in the heat of harvest.
- ' 5. For afore the harvest, when the bud is coming to perfection.
- ' And the blossom is become a juicy berry,
- ' He will cut off the useless shoots with pruning hooks
- ' And the bill shall take away the luxuriant branches.
- ' 6. They shall be left together to the bird of prey of the mountains,
- ' And to the beasts of the earth.
- ' And upon it shall the bird of prey summer,
- ' And all beasts of the earth upon it shall winter.
- ' 7. At that season a present shall be ledde
- ' To Jehovah of hosts,
- ' A people dragged away and plucked ;
- ' Even of a people wonderful from their beginning hitherto,
- ' A nation expecting, expecting, and trampled under foot,
- ' Whose land rivers have spoiled,
- ' Unto the place of the name of Jehovah of Hosts, Mount Sion.'

P. 93.

This translation may in general be adopted. In the second verse it may justly be doubted whether it would not be better to read imperatively—'send messengers by sea.' The middle of the verse 'unto a nation dragged away and plucked' is the stumbling-block of commentators; and, until the nation alluded to shall be known, we are likely to remain in error. The remaining part is more difficult—'unto a people wonderful from their beginning hitherto:' here *wonderful* is adopted instead of *terrible*, and the particles are supposed to refer to time, not to place. In both changes, we differ from the bishop. In the seventh verse the translator makes a people to be the present *led*, instead of what appears to us the more probable interpretation—the people meant by the prophet shall *lead* a present to Jehovah of hosts. The reason of these alterations will appear from the author's application of the prophecy.

The people 'beyond the rivers of Cush' are, according to this interpreter, some people living to the west of the Nile or the east of the Tigris, which time must discover. We know only that they

must be a maritime people, and be accustomed to the use of bulrush vessels : consequently great part of the Mediterranean, the whole of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and the Indian Sea, are open to our researches. The Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and the Ethiopic Ocean, are excluded ; and it is remarkable that these bulrush vessels are to be found in the parts which we strike out of our inquiries ; and we are not at present aware of any country bordering on the seas left open to us in which they are used. The nation dragged away and plucked is the Jewish nation in a state of oppression, whose land rivers, by a metaphor for destructive armies, have spoiled. The banner upon the mountains is the banner of the cross, to be lifted up, in the latter ages, more conspicuously than ever before ; the judgement of God on the earth, figured by a storm, will destroy the wicked, whose carcases will be left to the beasts and the birds ; and then the Jews will be carried back to their country as a present to Jehovah of hosts. Hence this prophecy remains among those which are to be made clear by their final accomplishment.

To us, however, this interpretation appears forced and unnatural. We cannot see the Jews in the description of the people to whom messengers were to be sent ; nor does it correspond with the usual language of the prophet on his own nation. A great desolation is evidently pointed out ; but we see no reason for referring it to future times. From the appropriate term also of bulrush vessels, it may seem that the prophet was speaking of some nation then existing. We are therefore inclined to look for the accomplishment of this prophecy nearer to the times in which it was spoken ; and, though there is much obscurity in some parts of it, the application to the destruction of Sennacherib's army, and the interest taken in it by the Cushites and the other nations under the reign of Tirhakah or Tearko in the south of Arabia and to the south of Egypt, give to the whole such an illustration as we can scarcely resist.

That this may more clearly appear, we will take the description of the land of Cush from our author.

‘ The land of Cush in Holy Writ (commonly, but by mistake, rendered Ethiopia) is properly that district of Arabia, where the sons of Cush first settled. But, as this race multiplied exceedingly, and spread, not only into other parts of Arabia, but eastward, round the head of the Persian Gulph, to the confines of Susiana ; and westward, across the Arabian Gulph, into the region since called Abyssinia, which extended along the coast from Ptolemæis to Arsinœe, and inland to the very sources of the Nile ; the land of Cush is often taken more largely for a great tract of country, not only comprehending the whole of Arabia Felix, but having for its eastern boun-

dary the branch of the Tigris, below the town of Asia, and for its western boundary the Nile. The rivers of Cush, in this place, may be either the Euphrates and the Tigris, on the east; or the Nile, the Astaboras, and the Astapus, on the west. But which of these are meant, it must be left for time to shew.' P. 93.

The phrase, 'spreading wide the shadow of thy wings' seems to be justly applied to the dominion of Tirhakah, whose wings were his Asiatic and African territories. Messengers sent to his people from Judea would naturally go in bulrush vessels on the Nile, or in crossing the Red Sea from the Asiatic to the African Cushites. The land spoiled or inundated by the rivers may be taken for Abyssinia and the country beyond it. The Cushites on both sides of the Red Sea were a formidable people, and the words translated *dragged away and plucked* may probably refer to some characteristics of that nation, with which we are at present unacquainted. Against this people Sennacherib was directing the force of his army; but he was stopped in his career by that dreadful judgement which in one place is described by the figure of an angel passing through and destroying 180,000 men, and here under the figure of a vine-dresser going through the rows and pruning the luxuriant branches. The consequence of this destruction was exultation on the part of Tirhakah, who with his people sent presents to Mount Sion. Thus, according to this interpretation, the prophecy was fulfilled very soon after it was delivered; and the destruction of Sennacherib's army was an event of such importance, and the presents from so distant a people as the Cushites of Africa were so glorious to the name of Jehovah, that we do not seem to wander far if we think that they very nearly explain the whole of the prophecy.

Though we cannot agree with our author in the general explanation of the prophecy, we certainly approve his exclusion of France, or 'the accursed spawn of Jacobins swarming out of her own bowels,' according to his elegant mode of expression, from any concern in it. But we cannot see any clue to the possession of the Holy Land by an 'apostate faction,' or to 'the seeming prosperity of the atheistical confederacy;' which are ideas derived rather from the warmth of the writer's fancy on the present state of things, than from a cool application of his mental powers to the times in which Isaiah prophesied. We agree with him in not 'discerning any immediate signs of the fall of antichrist;' and, though we cannot trace with him 'the pedigree of French philosophy, Jacobinism, and Bavarian illumination, up to the first heresies,' we are inclined to look for a clearer interpretation of the Apocalypse in the further developement of the rising powers of infidelity. We

also concur with him in thinking 'that the judgement will begin or fall with the greatest severity in that part of the church which most needs purgation;' or rather we believe that this purgation has begun in that disgraceful part of it which is delineated in Holy Writ by such epithets as it peculiarly deserves.

The political part of the work we leave to its own merits; but the following paragraph may claim some remarks.

'I see, therefore, nothing in the subversion of the antient monarchy of France, but what is cause of alarm to every government upon earth: nothing, in the subversion of the Gallican church, but what is cause of alarm to every church in Christendom: nothing in the sufferings of the aged pope, which can be cause of exultation and joy, in the heart of any Christian: nothing in the indignities and insults, which have been put upon him by low-born miscreants, a disgrace to the reformed religion, which they profess, but what should excite horror and indignation.' P. 107.

It is not the suffering of an individual which can be the cause of joy and exultation; but at the destruction of his usurped power we are taught to rejoice. We advise this writer to take up again the book of Revelations, and read the denunciations against papal Rome: we exhort him to reflect on the sufferings of protestants from that power and its manifold delusions. The subversion of the Gallican church is, like that former subversion of the churches in Africa, a call on every church to examine itself whether it is in the true faith and purity of discipline; but the destruction of any branch of the papal power is no cause of alarm to those who hold the truth in sincerity. We therefore reprobate every species of concern for the downfall of any part of popery; and, though we differ from this writer in seeing in all these things cause of triumph to the reformed churches, we agree with him that 'such symptoms of judgement are now gone abroad as should awaken all to repentance, lest all who repent not should likewise perish.' But we hasten to dismiss a work in which so much heterogeneous matter is mingled with the general subject; and we lament that critical disquisitions on an ancient prophet should be embittered by the politics of modern times.

A View of the Causes and Consequences of English Wars, from the Invasion of this Country by Julius Cæsar to the present Time. By Anthony Robinson. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

WHENCE come wars and fightings among you? says the apostle; and his answer appears to be just and proper, and is amply confirmed by the history of every country. They

come from the lusts and passions of men; and it is certainly a meritorious employment to exemplify this truth in the history of the wars of any nation, show in what manner they proceeded from different passions, and point out the failure of the means employed to gratify those appetites. But our author does not view this subject merely in the apostolical light: he evidently wishes to impute the whole blame to princes, priests, and nobles, though he himself brings a proof that the people were at one time urgent for war, and were repressed only by the prudence or (as some historians choose to call it) the timidity of the sovereign. The fact is, that, where-ever power is, the lusts and passions will operate, and, if they are not restrained within due bounds by prudence and discretion, the possessors of power will endeavour to gratify their lusts by an appeal to the sword; that is, by the same principle which influences the robber on the highway. Hence at one time wars will be found to originate in the insatiable ambition of the prince; at another time in the vindictive spirit of a priest; at a third, in the envious or resentful dispositions of the nobles; at a fourth, in the madness of the people. While Rome was under a republican government, it was in a state of almost perpetual warfare; and the empire of China, the most peaceable in the world, is monarchical; yet we are not thence to conclude, that the rulers of republics are the most addicted to war, and monarchs the most attached to peace. Upon the whole, we cannot agree with our author in his conclusion, which we will give in his own words.

‘ This review of the causes and consequences of English wars has shewn us that war has generally been made by the overbearing power of a few individuals in the state, for their own advantage, in contempt of the general interest; that it is one of the most dreadful scourges of the human race; and that we can only hope in future to be preserved from its ravages by those who are properly the people, the active population of the island, obtaining their due importance and weight in the national councils. We know of no other means of accomplishing this, but a fair representation of the people in parliament; and he who forwards this reform, without confusion or blood, is entitled, we believe, to a place, in the public estimation, amongst the greatest benefactors of his species.’ P. 241.

If we suppose that the people had possessed what is here called their due importance and weight in the national councils, does it follow that lust or passion would never have misguided them? If this should be asserted, we must ascribe to man a greater degree of wisdom than is consistent with the general account of him from the creation.

If we differ from Mr. Robinson in his conclusion, there are many passages in his work, tending to undervalue the Chris-

tian religion, in which he must still less expect our concurrence.

‘ That the blood which was shed in England in this century should be shed by Christian princes and nobles must ever be regarded with astonishment, and goes far to warrant one of these conclusions; either that Christianity is a religion which cannot influence, and consequently which is not calculated for mankind; or that men at this time were ignorant of its most obvious and simple principles. And of what benefit can that religion be to mankind, of the most simple principles of which they may, with the book in their hand, be for ages ignorant?’ P. 102.

We would recommend to our author, in answer to this frivolous objection, the perusal of our Saviour’s beautiful parable of the seed thrown on different soils. If, in the fifteenth century, the soil was bad, he must not expect the seed to produce a hundred fold; and, if he should say that Christianity has had no influence on the manners of men, he will advance an assertion which the slightest attention to the state of mankind under the influence of paganism is sufficient to contradict.

We may observe that his great object is in some measure overthrown by himself; and this will be seen on a comparison of the following extracts.

‘ The inhabitants of two countries, indeed, can rarely, if ever, have such a contrariety of interests as to induce them to make war upon each other.

‘ The true cause of war has ever been the existence of a dignified class, who, disposing of their inferiors as of their horses and hounds, have pursued their game into other countries for their own exclusive advantage, and have made the wretched people, whose ignorance rendered them willing dupes, subservient to their purposes of plunder and ambition.

‘ The nobles, to complete the delusion, and to secure the services of the devoted herd, have called the priesthood to their aid, who have induced the servant to obey his master when no earthly consideration was sufficiently powerful, by promising him the favour, or threatening him with the vengeance, of the king of heaven. What led the subjects of Philip to battle and to death? Had they any interest in the wars he prosecuted? Beasts of the field, they obeyed the commands of their tyrant, because they were taught that they were the will of God!!!’ P. 129.

We soon after meet with the following passage.

‘ The English no sooner heard that the elector Frederic had engaged to defend the protestant religion, than they were animated by the most lively enthusiasm, and panted with ardour to join the armies of the true faith. The peaceful king was alarmed by the zeal of

his subjects; he hated war, and would have endeavoured to check the ambition of his son-in-law, if he had known his intention before he accepted a crown of strife.' P. 130.

Thus the subjects are at one time the prey of their superiors, and, at another time, are with difficulty repressed by their superiors from war and bloodshed.

The general assertions made in this work are, in other respects, liable to censure.

'The history of England, we fear, we may add, the history of the world, exhibits no proof that morality was ever consulted in the notions of right which have guided the conduct of princes; for to them the power to accomplish any purpose has ever been the warrant and authority to act.

'He who is acquainted with the annals of mankind will pay little respect to the laws of nations, which have ever been dictated by tyrants, and varied according to their pleasure; but will respect, and will only respect, the laws and dictates of humanity. How mankind shall be governed in future, it is impossible to say; but that they have hitherto been governed by force cannot be denied.

'Muscular strength has indeed been subdued by the energies of mind; but the advantage to man has only been, that the cunning of a pick-pocket has succeeded to the strength of a ruffian.' P. 79.

No one can deny that James the first had power; yet this power, it seems, was not sufficient to involve him in war; and it cannot be allowed that princes have been destitute of the feelings of morality and humanity. We, indeed, wish to see them and their advisers influenced by one just sentiment which we with pleasure extract from this work.

'He who pursues the path of successful ambition, impoverishes his subjects for a good they can never share; and he who fails in his attempts at greatness, covers himself with shame, and oppresses his people that they may partake of his reproach.' P. 70.

We also wish that the general tenor of the work had corresponded with the preceding passage; but the writer seems to be too strongly biased by his jealous fears of priests and nobles; and we advise him to new-model his work on the general and true principles of the apostles, by which he will improve himself and his readers.

*A Philosophical and Critical History of the Fine Arts; Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture; with occasional Observations on the Progress of Engraving, in it's several Branches, deduced from the earliest Records, through every Country in which those Arts have been cherished, to their present Establishment in Great-Britain, under the Auspices of his Majesty King George III. By the Rev. Robert Anthony Bromley, B. D. Vol. II *. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.*

THIS volume contains a statement of the progress of the arts in Etruria; in ancient Rome, under three heads—Roman sculpture and painting, patronage, and architecture; and in the eastern empire, under the heads of sculpture, painting, and architecture: a survey of that mode of building which is denominated the Gothic is followed by four chapters, presenting details on the revival of the arts in Italy, and particular accounts of the Florentine and Roman artists, continued to modern times.

We shall extract some specimens, that the reader may judge for himself of Mr. Bromley's style and manner. The first shall be from the beginning of his account of Gothic architecture.

‘ To obtain a proper apprehension of Gothic architecture, it is necessary to understand the extent in which the word “Gothic” is used on that subject. Every man, who finds that term employed, is apt to conclude that whatever relations it may have besides, it was meant to describe some manner of building pursued by the Goths. Whether that application was really intended, or might properly be made, or whether the Goths had in fact any peculiar manner of building, which might deserve to be discriminated, will more fully appear in the sequel of this discussion. It is sufficient for the present to observe, that the term “Gothic” had it's origin among the Italians, and was more immediately intended by them to express those ruder styles of building, which succeeded to the Grecian and Roman forms in their purer days. That rudeness growing up in other branches of the arts during the declining periods of the Roman empire was equally characterized by the name of “Gothic.” And perhaps there was no term, which might so naturally have been selected by the Italians for the general character of that rudeness, as one that had relation to a people against whom they never ceased to inveigh for their long and extensive triumphs over all the exemplifications of taste which had been left in ancient Rome.

‘ In the progress of those ruder styles of architecture we shall do

* See our VIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 377.

right if we look to two different epochs. The first preserved some visible marks of relation to Greek and Roman principles, although it corrupted them. In the latter an entire departure from those principles took place, by a system which rose on principles of its own. The former has been commonly marked, at least by us, and some others in this part of Europe, by the name of "Saxon," and has been sometimes called the "old Gothic." The latter, or the "modern Gothic," is peculiar to some other people or set of architects, and has been given sometimes to the Goths, at other times to the Saracens, and again to others both in the east and in the west.' P. 233.

In answer to the question, whether the ancient Goths established any peculiar style of building in Italy? Mr. Bromley observes, that

' This question may be answered by proofs which still subsist in a greater or less degree. For after the Goths had become Christians, which first took place in the east under Arcadius near one hundred years before Theodoric's establishment in the west, and especially after that flourishing establishment had been gained, they hastened like all other Christians to build churches, and like all other people settled under a monarchy they erected palaces for their sovereign. As Ravenna was the residence of those sovereigns, we shall naturally look for what proofs are afforded of those edifices in that quarter, some of which are still left to our observation. The rotondo of St. Mary, built near Ravenna in the year 530 by Amalasonta the daughter of Theodoric, as the sepulchre of her father, is still considerably existing. That prince himself had erected palaces in that city, in Pavia, and Modena. There were also other churches erected in that period both at Ravenna and Rimini. Before that period, and very near a century before it, i. e. in the year 438, the church of St. John was built in the former of those cities by the empress Placidia; and in a subsequent period the church of St. Vital rose up there in the time of Totila about the year 547.

' What was done by the Goths in that part of Italy was followed in the same spirit by the Lombards, a German race, and bearing some of the Gothic blood in their veins, who succeeded to the sovereignty of that country in the same century which had seen the loss of Theodoric, the extinction of his family, and the total dissolution of Gothic power. The Lombard princes made Pavia the seat of their government; and there, or in other parts of the duchy of Milan, and its adjoining situations, they and their queens erected monasteries and churches. Theodolinda, the queen and widow of Autharic, the third prince of that nation, went with spirit into the measure of art which was before her; she built the church of St. John Baptist at Monza about the beginning of the seventh century, and there she caused to be painted the history of the Lombard, with whom she was connected by origin as well as by marriage;

being a princess of Bavaria. Her daughter Gundiperga built another church at Pavia. Luitprand, later in time, whose reign began in the year 712, and ended in 743, founded in that city the church of St. Peter, besides other churches and monasteries elsewhere. And Desiderius, the last of those Lombard sovereigns, built the church of St. Vincent in the city of Milan, that of St. Peter Olivata in the same duchy, and that of St. Julia at Brescia in the adjoining state of Venice. Many of those edifices are abiding, at least in very considerable vestiges, to shew the manner of architecture pursued by the Goths and Lombards.

‘ Vafari, recounting all those edifices in the preface to his lives, gives them as proofs of the Tedefchi style; of that style or manner, into which the Roman architecture began to fall with the decline of the empire. There is hardly any need to suppose that those were the works of Roman hands, or of any hands but the Goths or Lombards. The first, who were also the more ancient, were able enough, or they had seen enough of that manner, to execute it for themselves. Having made incursions into the west so early as the reign of Decius, whom they destroyed; having been used by Galerius and Constantine as auxiliaries in the east; and having obtained in the days of Valens a settlement in Thrace, the Roman manner of architecture in it's later days must have been quite familiar to their observation.

‘ And in those structures every feature marks it's descent from the Roman manner, while there is no one trace of what we understand by the name of Gothic in them all. The strength we discover is huge and massy; it was an emulation of that strength which had been exhibited by the ancients with more elegance; and it was the best emulation by which a declining taste could follow them; it was therefore without disguise, and without dress. The arches are circular; and if sometimes we find the openings square by means of a stone frame covered flat at the top, that only shews the declining hand which had struck out a new way of working upon Roman models, and which now and then chose in that way to shorten the openings which were formed circular above; but those arches are never pointed. The mouldings are always horizontal, and in no instance perpendicular. An entablature is not wanting; but it is such as better suits the coarse and heavy style of the structure than any Roman work of purer days.

‘ It will be sufficient if we look with a closer observation on one of those buildings by the Goths, I mean the sepulchre of Theodoric. In that structure there are some peculiar circumstances, which decidedly associate it's design with what had been practised in Greece or Rome. That sepulchre is round, as those of the ancients generally were: we have some remains of Roman mausolea still existing, and all of them round. The roof is finished as a low cupola; and all the cupolas of the ancients were low, as we have already had occasion to remark. A passage was given behind the parapet round

the cupola, the idea of which was furnished by many other ancient examples besides the Mole of Adrian. But in the contrivance of that passage, and in the means of getting out upon the roof, a very material difference occurs here from what had been done in any of the ancient mausolea, not much to the advantage of that of Theodoric, at least in point of taste and elegance. The access to the roof and round it was given through a kind of trap-door in the side of square erections which rise at regular distances on the upright wall, much higher than the parapet, and towards the centre of the cupola a little higher than that part of it against which they abut; and those erections appear to have served for the double purpose of giving a passage through them round the roof, and of becoming so many buttresses to the weight of the stone roof, which slipped upon each of them in the manner of a dove-tail, and fell so much lighter on the upright wall in proportion as it's pressure was sustained by those several erections. Moreover, that cupola is formed of one only stone, thirty-eight feet in diameter, and originally twelve feet thick, but scooped out underneath answerably to it's convexity above, so as to be now about four feet thick throughout. We are not certain that any such piece of workmanship as that was ever found in ancient Greece. When Byzas of Naxos was immortalized by an inscription for having invented a roof of marble about five hundred and eighty years before the Christian æra; and when Andronicus Cyrrhestes afterwards raised a roof of marble wrought in the form of tiles on his octagonal tower of the winds, we have no reason to believe that the covering was made of one solid block; neither in Egypt, where we read of immense buildings covered with stone immensely ponderous, are we sure that one only block was employed. It is not therefore improbable, that while the Goths derived from the ancients the first thought of that roof, very few examples, if any, equal to what was accomplished by them in that sepulchre were left to be studied in the ancient world. The church of St. Sophia at Constantinople was covered with slabs of marble; but that could have furnished no idea to the sepulchre of Theodoric, because it was not begun by Justinian when that sepulchre was finished,

On the whole, we find in those structures the bolder features of that Tedeschi or German manner, as Vasari calls it, which only became plainer and coarser with a further progression of time. And those features shew, that the Goths who were the founders of those structures, and the Lombards also, had no ideas of striking out a manner of building totally new, and independent of all previous models. If in those structures there appear any ornaments which may be thought capricious, yet they will be found on examination to be rather rude and degenerated than new; they are rather accidental than connected with detail; and they either bear no affinity to that more modern change of style which has been given to the Goths, or one so very remote that Christian builders, acting under

that change, may have adopted some of them, without the Goths having had any thing to do with the change in which they are so adopted.' P. 239.

After mentioning the Greek artists, employed in Italy in the middle ages, where painting in particular was never entirely lost *, our author thus proceeds.

'Tuscany began that honourable career. She had been to original Rome what Egypt was to Greece in the ancient arts. And in their modern revival she became again to the states around her what Sicyon was at first to the states of Greece, their leader to the works of taste.

'Before the middle of the thirteenth century, Nicholas Pisan, Cimabue, and Andrew Tafi, made their appearance in Tuscany; the first in architecture and sculpture; the second in painting, but not exclusively of architecture; and the last in mosaic: the first at Pisa, the two latter at Florence. They all came into the world at no great distance of time from each other, Nicholas and Andrew being both older than Cimabue, but the former the oldest of all.

'We shall first speak of Andrew Tafi, that we may not be interrupted in the thread of detail, which is less dependent on him than on the others. His passion for mosaic carried him to Venice, where Apollonius and other Greeks were employed in that way. The connexion he there formed with that artist, whom he carried from thence to Florence, gave him the opportunity of being improved in the art of enamelling, and of making durable plasters. He may therefore be considered as the first Florentine, and indeed the first Italian, who was thoroughly instructed in that art, although when his works came to be compared with those of Giotto after him, then it appeared how much they wanted to be improved.

— 'Nicholas Pisan had been brought up under some of those Greeks who had been employed in his country. From some natural impulses of genius he seemed not to be well satisfied with their taste. He betook himself to those ancient bass-reliefs, which the Pisans had brought from Greece. He studied them attentively. Although the greater part was seen in fragments, yet some were entire. By their help he found himself possessed of new ideas; from them he gathered such new instruction in design as caused him to dare a little, and to forsake with some freedom the rudeness which had been practised before him. He ventured to break from it: he shewed by his subsequent works, and particularly in his sculptures over one of the gates of St. Martin's church at Lucca, as also in other sculptures at Naples, that he had derived advantages from those studies. And the examples he gave of advancement beyond those who had gone before him created a new emulation in others,

* Nulla sæcula fuere in quibus pictores desiderati fuerint. Muratori *Antiq. Italiae*, M. Æ. tom. ii. diss. 24.

which proved to be equally serviceable to painting, by suggesting the means from whence it's advantages were to be drawn. In him was laid the foundation of a revived architecture and sculpture, which was carried on with encreasing character by his son John, whose disciples Agostino and Agnolo of Sienna brought up those ingenious men that first figured at Florence in the elegant art of carving gold and silver.

While Nicholas and his son John were so engaged, Cimabue came forward, impelled by a great desire to be a painter. He had been put under the tuition of those Greeks, who came to Florence to paint in the chapel of the Gondi-family. But the emulation derived from Nicholas Pisan had reached him. He wished to get rid of that rudeness which appeared in all the works of the modern Greeks, and he made some progress towards his wishes. The age conceived that he had made a great one; for no greater surprize and joy could have been produced by any work of the pencil in any period than that which was felt at the sight of the Virgin Mary, his first picture, when it was finished for the church of St. Maria Novella. They carried it in processional pomp, with the sound of trumpets, to the place appointed to receive it, and the day was celebrated by a public feast. Strange as those effects may appear to us, the people were right; for they could only judge of the works of taste through that medium of it to which their eyes had been accustomed; and by that medium they saw charms in the picture of Cimabue, although it rose in fact but few degrees beyond the rudeness which he was so anxious to surpass. But those few degrees were marvellous in those days, when we consider the real state of the arts before him. Vasari, who had beheld some of his works two hundred years after they were executed, could not but wonder how he came to see his way through so much obscurity of art to the progress he had made. It is no just criterion of that progress, although the contrivance was certainly a poor one, that in the cloister of St. Francis at Pisa he embraced the mode of giving expression to Christ on the cross by making angels to carry certain words from him to the ear of his mother and of St. John. Expression was a difficult thing, which Cimabue had never seen, and which of course he was not able to attempt. It was sufficient, if in his designs he could strike out a freer and more easy manner than those who had taught him; if his figures were disposed with more propriety and judgment; if in his draperies he could relinquish the hard and rigid lines which had been established by long practice for want of care or zeal to do better; and if in his colouring he was able to give his carnations more nature, and in the whole of it to get rid of that flat and meagre manner to which the pencil had been long condemned. These were great advances, let him have gone ever so short a way in each, and although we allow him, as we must, to have retained a considerable imitation of those from whom he had learned his art. And of those advances he left satisfactory

testimonies in the church of St. Maria Novella, and in the abbey of the Trinity, at Florence; in the hospital of the Portellana there: and perhaps, above all, at Ascesi in Umbria, where his emulation was not more marked by his abandoning the Greeks with whom he had been joined, than in the numerous and enlarged subjects of sacred history which he had the courage to undertake.

‘ We shall readily suppose that the advances made by him, few and limited as they were, pointed out to those who followed him a greater proficiency than he himself attained. And so it proved. For in Giotto he raised a pupil, who not only surpassed his master in whatever had given him an advantage over others, but seemed to have gathered to himself with some improvement whatever had been the progress of art before him in it's general branches. It was indeed the general emulation of artists in those times to be painters, sculptors, and architects at once. And thus Giotto shewed that he had not suffered the architecture or sculpture of Nicholas Pisan or of Arnolphus Lapo to escape him, when he founded the tower of St. Mary del fiore at Florence, and when he made those models in relievo for that tower, which Lorenzo Ghiberti declares that he had seen. He also shewed that he had profited by the mosaics of Andrew Tafi, when he executed what is called his ship at St. Peter's, so far beyond what Tafi had been able to reach. As a painter we must view him in a variety of ways exceeding what had been done before him in the modern world. The expression, which had foiled the genius of Cimabue, was respectably achieved by Giotto; inasmuch that in that circumstance, as well as in a greater truth of attitude, he was called by his own age the disciple of nature, and it was said that he was born to give light to the art.

‘ How anxious he was to succeed in that expression was visible in his first works, when perhaps he overdid what he sought to accomplish, as it has commonly happened in striking out of a beaten and dull track of art into a better: so it seemed in his early picture of the Annunciation in the abbey at Florence, where the Virgin Mary shewed so much fright that she was almost ready to run away; and, again, in the subject of Simeon painted by him in one of the chapels of St. Cross, where the child being presented by the Madonna to the good old man clung fast to it's mother, through fear of the stranger. Ample amends, however, were made for that excess in the just affection expressed by Simeon himself. As Giotto went on, that expression became more chastised, as in the thirsty man longing to drink of a fountain, in the upper church of Ascesi; in the devout submission of St. Francis to the scars, in the lower church of Ascesi, and in that of St. Francis at Pisa; in many characters introduced into his history of Job, in the Campo Santo at Pisa; in the patience of the man who is fishing with a line, in the mosaic at St. Peter's; and perhaps, above all, in the contrast raised between the truth, simplicity, and piety of the innocent wife who is put to her oath,

and the distrust and anger of the accusing husband, described in a cloister at Rimini.

In all those works it was not merely the expression of particular feelings, in which Giotto was to be commended, and in which he was indeed original: all of them afforded examples of a new success in attitude, of some invention in the use of it, of more liveliness in the heads, of more force in the draperies, with some ease and softness in their folds; and they also gave proofs of an attention to costume, which was altogether new. In one of his paintings, which represented the death of the Virgin Mary with the apostles about her, in a church at Florence, Michael Angelo at the distance of two centuries used to say that nothing could be more natural than the composition of that story. To Giotto we owe, besides, the first attempts of another advantage in the art, which, however imperfect under his pencil, laid the foundation of all the perfection to which it was afterwards carried, and that is, foreshortening.

Those improvements, rough as they were in his hands, will appear surprizing when we reflect that for many of them he must have been in a great measure indebted to himself. And yet that he should reach them before others will appear natural, when we know that he set out very early in the habit of drawing from the life, which we are assured was a novelty to his own age as well as to some others before him. And in his drawing he had acquired that decision and strength of hand, which left him no competitor: this was evident in the compleat circle drawn by one sweep of his pencil, which told the pope, without any other design, who was the artist that had drawn it. In short, we are compelled by facts to acknowledge that Giotto opened the door of the art, more than any other man, to those that followed him, and that to him may be traced many great advantages which afterwards distinguished the pencils of others, and in which they have sometimes been considered as original. Enlarging so much as he did, though still leaving room enough for others to enlarge more considerably after him, the circle of his art, he was enabled to raise under his own eye, and in his own house, the first school that was known in modern Italy. And we shall not wonder to find that school leading, by the diffusion of its instruction, to the establishment of the first regular academy of design which had been founded since the days of ancient Greece, and which was founded in Florence. P. 310.

This happened in the year 1350; and Mr. Bromley has given a particular account of this academy.

From these extracts it will appear, that our author's style is deficient in elegance and precision. His arrangement is not faulty; but he wants learning, and hence his materials are defective. How much, for example, might he have profited by Muratori's excellent dissertations on the antiquities

of Italy in the middle ages ! All Mr. Bromley's materials appear to be derived from the French and Italian writers on the fine arts. Vasari is chiefly followed in the last extract ; but how numerous are the discoveries on the subject since the time of that author ! Mr. Bromley should have begun with a complete knowledge of the bibliography of his subject.

His personal acquaintance with the fine arts we greatly doubt ; for his observations are generally injudicious or superficial. Du Bos wrote well on the fine arts, without being possessed of a statue or a picture ; but he had seen much in various countries, and was blessed with an exquisite taste. Whether Mr. Bromley has any pretensions to the latter quality we also doubt ; for what author who has any claim to taste would deform his book by prefixing to it a long and bitter altercation with Mr. Fuseli and Mr. Copley ? *Id populus curat scilicet !* Let not Mr. Bromley imagine that the niche given to us, in this strange temple of spleen, can influence our judgement. On the contrary, had we found this volume superior in execution to the former, we would cheerfully have paid our tribute of applause. The momentary attacks of any writer shall never induce us to forget the eternal laws of candour, or the respect which we owe to the public, to literature, and to ourselves.

The Victim of Prejudice. By Mary Hays, Author of the *Memoirs of Emma Courtney.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

CRITICISM is the mentor of genius ; and, though vigilant in correcting the errors of its pupil, it never fails to behold with delight and approbation those effusions which, in the language of the moralist, tend 'to give ardour to virtue, and confidence to truth.' We wish that we could justly bestow this eulogium on the production before us. It is the offspring of talents much above mediocrity ; but we do not hesitate to pronounce that they are employed in a manner highly dangerous to the peace and welfare of society. We do not make this serious charge without deliberation. An author collects a series of severe and unmerited misfortunes ; and, under the form of a novel, represents them as originating from opinions and habits commonly adopted in the world from a sense of their utility and decorum : whether such a work be an abortion of improbabilities issuing from the frigid brain of a paradoxical sophist, or whether it possess the fascinating power of exciting the feelings to sympathy, the mischief is equally great. The superficial head and the susceptible heart are confounded and led astray : society is contemplated with dis-

gust, as a state of artificial depravity ; and the salutary institutions of human intercourse are despised and violated by that rising generation, from which they ought to receive the profoundest reverence and the most ardent support !

We are unwilling to pronounce so severe a censure without some qualification. It is not the ability or the intention of Miss Hays that we dispute : it is the accuracy of her judgement. *The Victim of Prejudice* is a tale of considerable interest ; it has many passages which, for warmth and vigour of pathos and composition, are scarcely inferior to the effusions of Rousseau ; but it also exhibits that splenetic irritability which, by distorting decorum into prejudice, and custom into tyranny, tends to excite and to nourish the contagious and consuming fever of perverted sensibility.

The story of Mary, an unhappy prostitute, condemned to suffer death for assisting in a murder—a story which is transmitted by her in a letter to a worthy clergyman who once sought her hand—powerfully appeals to the heart. We shall quote its conclusion as a specimen of the pathetic sophistry which we have censured.

‘ Lowly and tranquil, I await my destiny ; but feel, in the moment that life is cut short, dispositions springing and powers expanding, that, permitted to unfold themselves, might yet make reparation to the society I have injured, and on which I have but too well retaliated my wrongs. But it is too late ! Law completes the triumph of injustice. The despotism of man rendered me weak, his vices betrayed me into shame, a barbarous policy stifled returning dignity, prejudice robbed me of the means of independence, gratitude ensharped me in the devices of treachery, the contagion of example corrupted my heart, despair hardened and brutality rendered it cruel. A sanguinary policy precludes reformation, defeating the dear-bought lessons of experience, and, by a legal process, assuming the arm of omnipotence, annihilates the being whom its negligence left destitute, and its institutions compelled to offend.

‘ Thou, also, it may be, art incapable of distinction ; thou, too, probably, hast bartered the ingenuous virtues, the sensibility of youth, for the despotism, the arrogance, the voluptuousness of man, and the unfortunate daughter of an abandoned and wretched mother will spread to thee her innocent arms in vain. If, amidst the corruption of vaunted civilization, thy heart can yet throb responsive to the voice of nature, and yield to the claims of humanity, snatch from destruction the child of an illicit commerce, shelter her infant purity from contagion, guard her helpless youth from a pitiless world, cultivate her reason, make her feel her nature’s worth, strengthen her faculties, inure her to suffer hardship, rouse her to independence, inspire her with fortitude, with energy, with self-respect, and teach her to condemn the tyranny that would impose fetters of sex upon mind.

‘ MARY.’ Vol. i. p. 167.

Is the law to be represented as completing the 'triumph of injustice' because it punishes a murder committed in the uproar of a brothel? Do our municipal institutions afford no redress for the seductive or forcible violation of female chastity, and has public benevolence provided no asylum for those repentant victims who would wish to escape from vice to virtue? A reform of manners cannot be promoted by indiscriminate imputations on society and the laws; and that person must be ignorant or uncandid who does not perceive or acknowledge the many grand and successful efforts of social sympathy, by which vice is attacked at its sources or stopped in its career, and by which the miseries flowing from depravity are divested of their pestilential acrimony. The 'tyranny that would impose fetters of sex upon mind' we do not understand, unless the remark belong to the *philosophical* jargon, indelicately illustrated in the precepts, and exemplified by the practice, of the advocates of the modern rights of woman. The respect due to female talent usefully employed has on no occasion been withholden by the public; and many are the instances in which that reputation is largely claimed, and brilliantly enjoyed. The writings of a More, a Barbauld, and a West, are monuments of well-directed genius, and will be deservedly admired when all the impassioned imitations of Rousseau and Diderot shall cease to be remembered.

The infant recommended to protection by the unfortunate female whose story has been alluded to, is the heroine of the present tale, and is made to experience a succession of miseries more cruel in their nature than, and nearly as ignominious in their termination as, those of her wretched mother. She is the victim not of seduction but of violence; and though she afterwards does not weakly yield to vice, but uses every effort of honest industry, she becomes a persecuted outcast from society, and is on the point of committing suicide in a prison. This catastrophe, however, is prevented by the unexpected arrival in England of two friends of her earlier years, whom she had generously assisted in their distress. We shall conclude with observing, that if the sad vicissitudes of this tale be founded on fact, happily they are of a very uncommon description; but that if, on the contrary, they merely be the offspring of the novelist's imagination, the offence is more than a gross outrage on probability: it is harrowing to agony feelings which deserve more respect than to be made the idle sport of unnatural fiction. The wanton use of stimulants tends to deaden the acuteness of sensation; and it may be remembered that the shepherd's boy in the fable, who had counterfeited a clamorous terror of the wolf, was not regarded when the destroyer actually committed his ravages on the flock.

Thoughts on Outline, Sculpture, and the System that guided the ancient Artists in composing their Figures and Groupes: accompanied with free Remarks on the Practice of the Moderns, and Liberal Hints cordially intended for their Advantage. To which are annexed Twenty-four Designs of Classical Subjects invented on the Principles recommended in the Essay by George Cumberland. 4to. 18s. Boards. Egerton.

THE abilities of the ancients in the fine arts have been so long acknowledged and admired, as to preclude the necessity of renewed commendation. Mr. Cumberland, an enthusiast as well as an artist, advances in the character of a champion for antiquity, and deals Herculean blows on the professors and academics for a neglect of those rudiments which lead to a rivalry of old times: but let him speak for himself.

‘ Stimulated by the purest affection for the fine arts, acquired at an age too tender to have noticed the cause of the impression, and which has been augmented, by the solace derived from the occasional practice of them, I have been frequently inclined to commit to writing a few thoughts on that best rudiment of art, the inestimable value of chaste outline; and to accompany them with such conjectures as, in the course of my enquiries, have occurred to me of the principles on which the Greek and other ancient artists wrought their finest compositions.

‘ This inclination arises from the disagreeable conviction, which experience has afforded me, that in this country, the arts, in general, have of late been rather declining from progressive improvement; in which they have been accompanied by a like declension of judgment in the public mind.

‘ From what causes this has arisen, it is no difficult task to discover: the arts have suffered, as men unhappily suffer, more from injudicious friends than from open enemies.

‘ They have suffered from being too much practised as a trade; from the clumsy patronage of traders, upheld by the avarice of their professors: something they have suffered from the wants of some who profess them; and much, indeed, from the jealousy of others who, having obtained possession of the public mind, are industrious to nourish a vulgar prejudice against the only models of perfection known to us, (I mean the works of the ancients); but most of all from the Royal Academy, and its injudicious exhibitions.

‘ When I repeat this, I do not mean to find fault with the institution, which, if properly managed, might be the true protecting Minerva, the soul, the source, the guardian of the plastic exercises.

‘ But will any one say, this is now the case; where almost the only aid afforded the arts are lamps and candles, and for what? to seduce the young student from home, for short and stated periods, to copy the worst models of both sexes; to draw from plasters,

thrice coloured in oil; that have been first repaired, as they call it, by journeymen casters; to hear lectures on the arts, not always practically elucidated; which are never published and given away as, if at all useful, they ought to be; but read over once a year, regularly, in a large room, where the visitors are of course complimented with the first places, and those for whose use the institution was confessedly intended, hear them in monotonous notes reverberated from the barren walls, in hollow and imperfect echoes.

* Nor let any of the present worthy lecturers take offence at what my honest zeal forces from me; for those I have had the pleasure to know, have hitherto loved the arts too well not to acknowledge the justness of these remarks.

* To see a library once a week without profiting by its utility; to lose a morning in acquiring anxious longings after works that can only lead an artist astray; for such are most of the books of prints in use, if not accompanied with a proper antidote to their multifarious defects; and thus, when the student thinks he is admiring the antique, he often pants to equal the style of those who gave every thing a manner of their own, such as Santi Bartoli, &c. for even many of those honoured with the title of artists, are, to this day, ignorant that there is no ancient work hitherto engraved, that can, in the slightest degree, be depended on as a guide to a true knowledge, even of the forms they profess to represent, much less as explanatory of the nature of fine forms in the general.

* In this censure must be included those expensive works, the greater museums, among which, the worst is the Museo Clementino, and the best, as most faithful, that of Herculaneum. The capital museum is full of the grossest errors and misrepresentations; and the baths of Titus have not the slightest resemblance of the elegance of the original paintings. Piranesi is as little to be trusted to; and, perhaps, the most faithful thing we have, as to style, is Villamina's Trajan column; but if the collection of fine studies from the best marbles which have been for many years leisurely accumulating at Rome by Deare, Robinson, and Woodford, should ever be faithfully published, although but in outlines, the world will then possess as strong a reflection of the good works of the ancients, as modern zeal and abilities are capable of conveying.

* But the evils produced by that ill-judged contrivance, our annual exhibition, surpass all calculation.

* It is a crucifying invention: devised, I suspect, by some fashionable artist, in order to enable him securely to sneer at his contemporaries; a chilling frost that nips the bud of genius; and, to add to its horrors, it has too often incurred the charge of partiality.

* But, however this may be, it must, in the most liberal hands, do harm. Exhibit, in one room, the great works of all the great masters that have ever lived, and there will be only one favourite picture; how then are the humble students of the arts to survive

among the tyrants of the trade, with their fierce contrasts, good lights, and double burnished ornaments?

‘ Were the public taste, indeed, sufficiently chastened, to pierce with Lynx’s eyes through the chaos of images, with which they are annually glutted to satiety; the productions of sensitive genius would imbibe the cherishing ray; but as things are at present conducted, can the lover of chaste simplicity, who is feeling his way cautiously up the steep of fame, hope to find favour among a generous, well-meaning, but, as to the fine arts, ill-informed nation, when placed beside those who have studied to flatter the vices of the eye, rather than to captivate the understanding?

“ We first creep and then go,” says the old adage; and let the public only reflect how long art was forming in Greece, even with her good models, before they give ear to the flattering tales of the interested.

‘ Printfellers, and painters too, for an hundred years to come, will be continually assuring us, that we are arrived at the pinnacle of perfection. It promotes their profits, and so far, if taken with large allowance, it does no harm; but it does hurt indeed both to art, to poetry, and the country’s ideas, when such authors, as Shakspeare, are undertaken to be finally illustrated, by exhibitions of pictures, painted according to the orders, and the ideas, of men; who so far from being able to guide this triumphal chariot of the British Apollo, are scarcely worthy to hold the horses’ heads: pictures painted on the gallop of rivalry, the spur of necessity, and under the lash of power.

‘ When such arrogant engagements fail, it is not alone to be lamented that the public are deluded; but confidence is wounded, the arts are paralysed, and abused hope is converted into ill-founded scepticism: I feel also an evil consequence from even the partial success of such crude illustrations; for, while the dull arrows of our beloved poet’s sturdy commentators fly from the adamant shield of his exalted genius; many of these misconceived abortions will descend to posterity together with his finest passages; and, like changelings, supersede the genuine heirs of his poetic imagination.

‘ If what I here say may seem harsh, I shall be sorry for the pain it may any where produce; but if the effect be salutary, I shall the less regret it. What better use, indeed, can we make of that freedom of the press, which is yet left us, than to seek the good of the country, whose constitution confers it? What better use of life, and liberty of thought, than to give our ideas free scope, when sincerely desirous of promoting a straight direction in the tender plant of those arts, which may hereafter adorn and raise the character of the nation to which we belong? By giving way too much to sweet-scented civility, on a tender topic like this, an author serves himself, but injures his readers, if his view really is,

‘ To pluck the phantom habit, from the soul,
And seat reflection there.’ P. 1.

This extract, we presume, will give our readers some idea of our author's views, taste, and opinions, which, we may observe, are brought forward with no small portion of *modest assurance*. 'Let your arguments be hard, and your words soft,' were, if we recollect rightly, the expressions of one of our greatest philosophers: but Mr. Cumberland seems to be a disappointed man; and disappointment seldom expresses herself in the gentle language of the dove. He may possess taste; but let him beware of being a blind enthusiast. We approve a correct outline as much as he does; but the other perfections of the graphic art must not be swallowed up by his leviathan.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C S.

An Appeal, Civil and Military, on the Subject of the English Constitution. By John Cartwright, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Sold by the Author. 1799.

IF there ever was a moment in the history of this empire productive of more than ordinary interest, and pregnant with great events beyond the calculations of wisdom or the conjectures of enthusiasm, it is surely the present; in which the nation conflicts with a power of gigantic force, not for the opening of a river or the possession of a town, not for a right of fishing, of hunting, or of cutting wood, which have given occasion to former wars, but for the re-settlement of constitutions, the formation of national governments, and the destruction of popular principles, through the means of a war which by each contending power has been declared to be a *bellum internecinum*. A moment of such rare occurrence in the history of nations is really awful! Never do we recollect any thing parallel in the condition of any country, since the arts of civilisation spread their influence amongst mankind. At such a moment a wise government should invite the counsel of all its subjects; and all good subjects should present the offering of their wisdom on the altar of their country. The author of this work seems to feel the critical situation of the empire, and steps forward to offer the best advice which mature years and some experience have put into his power. We honour the motive; for we believe it to be of no sinister character; and we proceed to analyse and to criticise the work.

The first part of this performance, which was occasioned by a

meeting at Boston in Lincolnshire, for petitioning parliament on the situation of public affairs, has been some time before the public, and consists, besides matter of personal and temporary concern, of the assertion of the right of British subjects to be universally represented in their parliament, founded upon much legal research, upon many strong analogies, and an appeal to the great constitutional and political luminaries which have adorned and enlightened this favoured country. The second and third parts of this work are devoted to the establishment of the same right of representation, and to the elucidation of Mr. Cartwright's favourite plan of *arming the whole people*. These parts abound with proofs of historical and legal research. Far from founding his pretensions upon baseless visionary theories, the writer is the disciple of the immortal Alfred, whom he considers as the author of the true civil and military constitution of England, and on whose practical policy he erects his scheme of national freedom and strength. Our readers shall hear him on this point.

‘ To those unreflecting and timid persons who may still imagine a general arming to be dangerous to government, it may be advisable to say a few words. What, then, more decisive can be said, than that Alfred, when he armed the whole community, thought not so? Nay, by his penetrating mind it was seen, that it is the universality of arms, which is the very secret for giving a government of freedom and law undisturbed tranquillity and resistless power. All that is wanting to this effect, is simplicity of arrangement, and strictness of regulation. Nor are we left to mere reasoning on this question; for there is no historical fact better established than that in his reign, and owing to the very system of an universal arming, the authority of law, and the energy of the civil power, which comprehend the whole of government, were carried to a height of perfection never exhibited to the view of mankind in any other age or nation. Let any man compare this with what has so often happened in our own times, and he cannot be at a loss to see to which system, that of an armed inhabitancy, or that of a standing army, a preference is due. Let him look back to the first establishment of turnpikes, or to the first raising the partial modern militia both in England and Scotland; when insurrectionary proceedings caused the effusion of much blood: let him call to mind the hundreds of tumults that have disturbed the public tranquillity, particularly in our large towns; let him take a retrospect of what happened in St. George's-fields; of the infamous conflagrations at Birmingham, and of the infernal proceedings in the capital in the year 1780; and then let him ask himself, if any one of these events, so alarming and so calamitous to the people, and so disgraceful to government, could possibly have taken place, had the system of the immortal Alfred been in use and vigour.

‘ After the celebrated example of that great king's reign, it can-

not be said, this is only supposing the arms will be employed in support of law, in which case the irresistible power of government is admitted: nor can it with propriety be asked, what would be the consequence, if they should be turned against it? I confess I should not know how to answer such a question, better than by asking such another.—What, then, would be the consequence, if the waters of the Thames, the Severn, and the Humber, and of all our other rivers, were to turn against their own sources, to climb the hills from whence by the law of nature they descend, and to pour their streams into the country instead of the ocean?—Can any one, pretending to reason, imagine a free people, having a legislature in which they were substantially represented, and their community regulated and preserved by a law, emanating, through such a medium, from themselves,—can any one, I ask, imagine such a people, so circumstanced, capable of uniting the power of their own arms, to destroy their own work, their own prosperity, and their own happiness?—Has any man yet dreamed, the people of the American States, because really a free and armed people, are therefore likely to use their arms against their own government; which, so far from having a standing army, have not amongst them a single professional soldier? The supposition is too absurd to stand for a moment.

‘But no man can look into history without perceiving that wherever mercenary soldiers and standing armies have been introduced, there the true government of the state has invariably been subverted, by those who had the command of the armies.’ P. 134.

Taking his stand on the hallowed ground of freedom, consecrated by the labours of Alfred, this writer considers all innovations, from that period of English law and liberty, as attacks upon the rights of British subjects, pursued through the lapse of ages, and ending in the institution of standing armies, and in the adoption of the borough system of representation. Standing armies and the borough system appear to him entirely destructive of legal liberty, and dangerous to national security; and he opposes to these institutions an army of all the citizens, and a parliament chosen by universal suffrage.

Without giving an opinion respecting these points, it is a debt which we owe to the imperious claims of truth and candour to say that the author does not seem to us to be actuated by any love of anarchy or any views of self-aggrandisement. This awful and alarming moment authorises the freedom that he has exercised; and a wise government will profit both by the erroneous and the correct conclusions of its subjects, when founded upon facts soberly proposed.

As a literary composition, the work before us may be said to bear a mixed character. It contains a mass of valuable and important materials, some of which are collected from the early an-

nals of our country, and some from the first legal and learned authorities in the language. It contains some passages animated, and even elegant in a high degree; but this is not its general character. The general composition is dry and insipid, without grammatical accuracy and without grace or point. Its chief fault, however, is, a want of proper arrangement. The author has produced a chaos of matter, containing, indeed, the pure elements of political science; but another mind is wanted to throw it into form, and show it to an admiring world, as a fair and perfect whole, which the spirit of Locke would pronounce good.

Necessity of destroying the French Republic, proved by Facts and Arguments. Translated from the French, by the Author. With Additions. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1799.

Notwithstanding the declaration in the title-page, we suspect that this pamphlet has been seen in no language but the English. Why should the thoughts of this author be deemed of sufficient importance to be conveyed to the French in their own language? They are not new or profound; nor are they adorned by a style of writing which boasts of any attractive powers. What Mr. Burke formerly said, with all the force of Roman eloquence, concerning the incompatibility of the French republic with the other existing governments of Europe, this writer details in coarse and inaccurate language. If any man should wish to amuse himself with this pamphlet, and then to light his pipe with it, we can have no objection; and we assure him that thus alone will he be warmed and animated by the work.

Constitutional Strictures on particular Positions advanced in the Speeches of the Right Hon. William Pitt, in the Debates which took place on the Union between Great Britain and Ireland, on the 23d and 31st of January, 1799. By Willoughby, Earl of Abingdon. With an Appendix, and Parliamentary References to his Lordship's Political Conduct: selected by the late John Kent, Esq. and recommended to the Attention of his eldest Son, Lord Norreys. 8vo. 1s. Barnes. 1799.

He has little acquaintance with the writings and conduct of the earl of Abingdon, who expects to find, in any work from his pen, that solidity of judgment and comprehension of mind, which embrace a wide view of a great subject, and happily apply a remedy to a pressing evil. The earl will not allow with Mr. Pitt that parliament is omnipotent, and that whatever the Irish legislature shall decree must be right. He declares that he held the same language during the American war; and he has produced what he deems strong testimonies of his patriotism and his talents. Indeed, were he a quack doctor, he could not be more zealous in the cause of his public reputation, or puff himself in a manner or in language greatly dissimilar to that which he has here adopted. The political

student, however, will be contented to leave him to his triumph, and to turn from his parade of words to the solid reasoning of Montesquieu and Locke.

Impartial Relation of the Military Operations which took place in Ireland, in consequence of the Landing of a Body of French Troops, under General Humbert, in August, 1798. By an Officer, who served in the Corps, under the Command of his Excellency Marquis Cornwallis. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton. 1799.

Very little is added to the information already communicated on this subject in the public papers. The most extraordinary part of that campaign was the defeat of general Lake at Castlebar, which is attributed in this relation to a sudden panic. The subsequent dispositions of lord Cornwallis are well known; and his prudent arrangements are properly detailed in this pamphlet; but we should have been better pleased if the writer had treated more fully of the operations and conduct of the enemy.

PROPOSED UNION BETWEEN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Mr. William Smith's Address to the People of Ireland; being the Substance of his Speech, delivered on Thursday, 24th January, 1799, in the Irish House of Commons, on the Subject of a Legislative Union between that Country and Great Britain, &c. 12mo. 2s. Debrett. 1799.

This writer, in arguing the question of the union, throws out some unnecessary reflections, and seems to treat with contempt the body which he addresses. He allows, however, that the 'popular approbation of a public measure, which is not requisite towards giving it validity, may yet be desirable towards giving it effect.' Desirable merely! is it not absolutely indispensable? If the parliament of Ireland should agree to the union against the judgement of the generality of the people of that realm, the measure might be nominally carried into execution, and there would be nominally an imperial parliament; but Ireland would be a province to all intents and purposes, either kept in order by a superior military force, or convulsed by continual insurrections. In all countries, let the form of the legislature be what it may, the executive power must govern by laws agreeable or disagreeable to the people: if they are of the latter description, it must have a force adequate to the purpose of coercion; if of the former, a less force is requisite. The constitution of England supposed that no law disagreeable to the people could be enacted, because the commons have a veto on every law proposed in the legislative body; and hence the competency of the parliament to any law respecting changes in the executive department, period of representation, &c. must be allowed. But if the commons should be surprised into a measure by which they would be disabled in future from speaking the senti-

ments of the people, at that moment the constitution is destroyed, and the country is left without stable principles of government. Thus if the legislature should determine that the present commons, and their children after them, should for ever possess the rights and privileges of the house of commons, there cannot be a doubt that such a thing can be done; but, if it should be done, England would cease to be what it was; and whether the new government might be better or worse, the old constitution would be annihilated.

In blending the legislatures of the two countries the commons of both are blended; and, though the case may be supposed that the commons of one country should think differently from the commons of the other, yet this is a case rather speculative than likely to occur in practice, and the danger of a violation of the terms of the union by the imperial legislature is scarcely to be apprehended.

Nor is the independence of Ireland more impaired by the measure, it is well asserted, than that of England. But some restrictions must be made to this assertion. 'To blend the substance together is not to lessen the quantity of either;' that is, if the whole of the two substances be blended; and here, to make the figure complete, the lords of Ireland must be amalgamated with those of England, the whole Irish house of commons must be transferred to the English house, or the representation of England, Scotland, and Ireland, must be altered, so that each should possess its due share in the legislature; and here, perhaps, the greatest attention is necessary.

On the advantage derivable to the catholics from the union, are some just and liberal sentiments; and throughout, except a degree of prolixity on the competency of parliament, and some asperity arising probably from the state of Ireland, we attended this writer with pleasure, and have no doubt that his arguments will have weight with those who have hitherto opposed the union. It is fortunate that so long a time has been given for the examination of the measure, as the next parliament will be prepared to discuss the terms with impartiality.

Substance of the Speech of the Right Honourable Lord Sheffield, Monday, April 22, 1799, upon the Subject of Union with Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

Lord Sheffield strongly favours the union, by which alone, he thinks, Ireland can be rescued from the dangers which encompass her. By this measure, the hostile divisions of catholics and protestants will be annihilated; and so great a benefit will compensate many inconveniences. Commercial advantages to Ireland will also be the consequence of the scheme; and, above all, life and property will be secured in that unhappy country, in which at present 'a

residence is as much to be avoided as in countries subject to the most hideous tyranny or savage banditti.' The argument on commercial advantages is not so convincing as that of the prosperity of an united in comparison of a disunited empire, taken from the instances of Scotland and England, Arragon and Castile, and, it might have been added, England and Wales. His lordship votes for an union on the general principle of its expediency: in the detail many difficulties may occur; and he thinks with reason, that, when the mode of union shall be discussed, 'it will be necessary to give all our attention and exert our best powers in examining the articles and, above all, in preventing harm to the constitution, taking care that we do not, with a levity and submission that seem to belong to the times, do any thing that may be unnecessary for one country, and should be highly dreaded by the other.' In this opinion we entirely agree with him; for on the constitution of the new imperial parliament may depend the future condition of Englishmen; and the changes in the constitution of England in the next century may far exceed those to which it has been subjected since the revolution.

Considerations on National Independence, suggested by Mr. Pitt's Speeches on the Irish Union. Addressed to the People of Great Britain and Ireland. By a Member of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rickman. 1799.

If we give credit to the declarations of our leading statesmen, there is, at least, *one Christian government* in existence. The government of Great Britain, in particular, has learned the high and holy lesson of our religion, *to render good for evil*. The French are our natural enemies; and we, in return, are anxious to confer upon them the blessing of monarchy, the grand instrument and cause of our own unexampled prosperity. The Irish, during the deliberations on the regency, offended Mr. Pitt and his adherents, and have lately insulted this country with the loud cry of open rebellion; and *for their good alone*, in return for such conduct, we are willing to give them the union. We oblige them to marry us, because they are unworthy of our alliance. This is, indeed, true Christian magnanimity!

The author of this pamphlet combats with ability the arguments of Mr. Pitt on the subject of the union, asserts the importance of national independence, the competency of Ireland to self-defence, and concludes against the policy of the measure. If our readers be not already fatigued by the numerous pamphlets on this question, we can assure them that the one now before us is a well-written, moderate, and argumentative performance, the production of a mind conversant with the history of this country, and accustomed to great extent of views.

F I N A N C E.

Observations on the Produce of the Income Tax, and on its Proportion to the whole Income of Great Britain: including important Facts respecting the Extent, Wealth, and Population of this Kingdom. Part the First. By the Rev. H. Beeke, B. D. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1799.

There are some truths so palpable that they result from every mode of calculation, and are echoed, however reluctantly, by the voice of all parties. Of this class of obvious and incontrovertible truths, is the incapacity of the income tax to the production of the sum at which it was first taken by the minister. Our author, in the pamphlet before us, endeavours to prove that the *real* income of the country considerably exceeds Mr. Pitt's estimate, and that its population exceeds every statement made on that subject; and yet he contends that, if we take his own data as true, the income tax cannot produce more than 7,500,000 pounds, and *may* not produce more than 6,500,000.

Although Mr. Beeke has afforded us no proof that we ought to accede to his conclusion respecting the income and population of this kingdom, one conclusion irresistibly presses upon us, if we admit what he says to be true—that more than 7,500,000 pounds cannot be wrung from the people of this country by any income tax, in addition to the other taxes which they are obliged to pay, unless the *very rich* be assessed in larger proportions than 10 *per cent*, or the less wealthy classes of the community be trampled to the dust.

It is safe for those who have any dealings with an enterprising individual, to under-rate rather than to over-rate his resources, lest, by the allowance of an unwarrantable credit, he be betrayed into too liberal an expenditure, and his creditors be eventually ruined. May not this reasoning be applied to the credit of nations as well as to that of individuals? Too much confidence in supposed wealth and resources may lead to ruin, by inspiring those who manage the public purse with boundless extravagance. At all events, it is *safest* to under-rate the ability of a country in payment of taxes, as it tends to produce caution and frugality, the parents of strength and prosperity.

We do not, therefore, thank our author for inspiring us with a wasteful confidence. Our resources are put to the test; the production of the income tax is no longer a matter of speculation; and we should be awed by the result into œconomy and caution. We will not despair of our country, nor attend to those writers who would lead us to despair; but, by a timely œconomy, we would give credit a sure basis, and national prosperity a real and long existence.

Extract from an Account of certain Poor Persons in London who cannot pay their Income Tax. With Observations, and a Plan for their Relief. Submitted to the Consideration of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1799.

The worthy author of this pamphlet has a proper feeling for the miseries of his fellow-creatures, and has dedicated his talents to the benefit of one class of poor who stand in need of all our compassion. These poor people live in general at the west end of the town, are in possession of parks and palaces in the country, have no means of employing their time, and are grievously affected by the tax upon income. Some cases of this kind are brought forward, which cannot fail of exciting strong emotions in every humane mind; and the remedies suggested by this writer may be estimated from his plan of instructing these individuals, one part of which is to impress upon them—

‘ That there is no income, either small or great, out of which it is not the interest of the possessor, as he regards his own happiness, to apportion one certain part for contingencies, and another for those expenses, from which all selfish views are to be utterly excluded, and of which the sole object is to be the welfare of his fellow-creatures.’ P. 25.

RELIGION.

A Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's, on Tuesday, May the Twenty-ninth, 1798. Being the Anniversary of the Restoration of King Charles II. By Charles Sawkins, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

In the course of our review of sermons preached upon public solemnities, we have had repeated occasion to reflect on the spirit of moderation with which subjects interwoven with political discussions ought to be handled in the pulpit. Days of national commemoration (such as the 30th of January and the 29th of May) were well intended, and are capable of being wisely improved. They lead to a pious acknowledgment of the hand of divine providence in those striking events to which they refer, as well as to a grateful sense of the blessings enjoyed under our excellent constitution and well-poised form of government. And although differences of opinion have subsisted, and will continue to subsist, with regard to the transactions of other times, and the characters and conduct of those who had a principal share in them, yet, by all parties, many useful instructions may be reaped, at the present distance of time, from a review of the remarkable events of former days. But, while the contemplative mind, unwarped by prejudice, has derived advantages from such a train of reflections, the party-man has too frequently seized such occasions of reviving

subjects of great dispute, and of venting indiscriminate censures upon all who do not rank themselves of the same political or religious party with himself. Hence, viewing every object through the mists of prejudice which he is unwilling to dispel, he sees nothing but perfection in, and can give nothing short of unlimited commendation to, the conduct of the party which he thinks proper to defend, while he is equally destitute of impartiality when he attempts to describe the principles and conduct of the opposite party. We do not say that these reflections apply, in their full extent, to the discourse now before us; but while we find in it some just and useful observations, we are sorry to perceive a tendency to that improper spirit which we have been censuring. That, in the last century, and during the interregnum and confusions subsequent to the death of Charles I. the clergy in many instances met with severe and oppressive usage; that Cromwell was an usurper, and in various parts of his character exhibited the features of a tyrannical despot, may be truly affirmed; but is it necessary to connect with those positions such as the following:—that the public measures of Charles's reign were faultless,—that his ministers and advisers were men of moderation and wisdom,—or that scarcely any principle, or virtue, could be found amongst the persons who opposed the measures of the court? Party-writers, on any side, may find it easy to blacken those whom they wish to represent as enemies; but true political wisdom, when connected with the spirit of piety, will lead us to bewail the effects of political and religious feuds; will teach us to avoid, as much as possible, the occasions of them; and, far from attempting to perpetuate and widen such breaches by indulging the language of recrimination, and the severity of censure, will cherish in our breasts sentiments of candour, mildness, and charity. Thus shall we best promote the interests of truth, and the peace and welfare of our country.

Nine Discourses on Prayer. By John Townshend. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Matthews. 1799.

The subjects of these discourses are, the object and nature of prayer; perseverance and watchfulness in prayer; family prayer; ejaculatory prayer, &c. The pious author treats these subjects in a plain and practical manner. The sermons are formed upon the Calvinistic system; and perhaps some of the sentiments which are intermixed would be objected to by many individuals; but, in general, they must meet with the approbation of all who are sincerely desirous of the revival of a spirit of praying amongst Christians of all denominations.

The discourse on family prayer we consider as one of the best and most useful in the volume. The arguments in favour of this too much neglected practice are well stated, and a regard to it is strongly enforced on heads of families. The preacher at the same time shows that family devotion has been productive of much good,

both in a moral and religious point of view. We extract the following specimen of his style and manner.

‘ The head of every prayerless family contributes much to the infidelity and irreligion of the times. Children and servants are told by his example that religion is a thing of no importance, that there is no great need of going either to church or meeting on the Lord’s day, and that God is too merciful to be angry with our devoting, at least a part of it, to pleasure and visiting: and even some who would be thought good Christians and rigid moralists frequently inveigh against what they call, a puritanical observation of the Sabbath. Provided they devote some part of the day to devotion, they think they may spend the evening very innocently at the nearest and most fashionable promenade, or in some snug convivial party; and whilst they are thus employed, their servants and their children also are roving at large, “as sheep having no shepherd,” imbibing habits and forming connexions which ultimately make them bad members of the community.

‘ But look at the family in which God is truly known and feared, the heads of which instruct and pray with them, and urge upon them the great truths of Christianity, and those pure morals which result from the knowledge and experience of it in the soul. The subordinate branches of such families are every evening kept out of the common and crowded haunts of ignorance and vice, and are occupied in services which not only bear some relation to the interests of their own immortal souls, but which have also a tendency to form them into wise, industrious, and useful citizens. In short, where-ever family devotions are conducted in a proper manner, and produce their proper effects, such a family becomes orderly, united, and industrious; it is indeed, in a degree, an emblem of that society above, where neither discord nor misery ever enter. Such families are the beauty and strength of society.’

Although the composition of these discourses may not be thought to rise above mediocrity, yet, as they appear calculated to answer the great end of preaching, they may be very profitably perused by the serious reader.

Two Sermons preached before his Majesty at the Chapel Royal at St. James’s during Lent. By Brownlow, Bishop of Winchester. 4to. 2s. Wright. 1799.

The folly of infidelity is shown to be greater than that of either ignorance or superstition. The propriety of obedience to the higher powers is well stated in the following words.

‘ However, therefore, he may have modelled his dispensations, imparting, more or less fully, to one nation or to another, the revelation of his will in Christ, he hath nevertheless written in the hearts of all, from the beginning, the plain lesson of obedience to authority

for conscience's sake, and submission to the higher powers, on the principle, that superior and superintending wisdom should govern the general interests of mankind, independently of individual wilfulness or error.' p. 6.

Hence is inferred also the propriety of a religious establishment; and the state of the neighbouring country affords grounds for a contrast between atheism and Christianity, between the happiness of a country governed by good laws and regulated by religion, and one given up to anarchy and confusion. It may be observed, that from the motives laid down for obedience to the superior powers, the necessity of attention on their part to good conduct is evidently to be inferred; for, if superior wisdom is the ground of obedience, when that wisdom disappears, disobedience must follow; and history gives a sanction to the truth that the constitution of a country is rarely overthrown unless the misconduct of the administration had first given room for the operations of designing malcontents.

A Sermon for the Benefit of the Margate Sea-Bathing Infirmary, by the Rev. W. Chapman, A. M. Curate of Margate. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1798.

This is a well-composed and appropriate discourse. After decanting on the many charitable institutions which do honour to our nation, the preacher justly remarks, that, 'fondly as we pride ourselves in the name of Britons, we shall find no plea to that pre-eminence which we claim, better founded than that which rests upon the basis of national benevolence;' and he adds, 'if we are disposed to indulge national pride, let us deduce it from considerations such as these, from the superior care which is here discovered for cultivating the minds and administering comfort to the bodies of the lower ranks of our fellow-subjects. Such conduct rests upon the solid basis of religion, and is supported by the truest policy. We express thereby our gratitude to the great Author of our Being, in that way which he has himself pointed out; and we receive, in so doing, the temporal reward of our obedience in the increased prosperity of our country, which must ever improve with the ease and comfort of those who form the wealth of every state, the great body of the people. While they continue happy and contented, never shall the efforts of any enemy, foreign or domestic, against our peace, be crowned with success.'

We are sorry to learn that the exertions of the patrons of the sea-bathing infirmary at Margate have not been able to accomplish their benevolent design to the desired extent.

'Much yet remains to be done. One wing is still wanting to complete their building; while their finances are at present insufficient to gratify their wish of affording sustenance to those for whom they provide lodging, advice, medicine, and attendance. However, under all these obstacles, they have carried their plan (as far as was

in their power) into execution; and it must afford pleasure to every feeling heart to learn, that all those who have hitherto fallen under their care have been restored to their friends very much relieved, the major part in perfect health, though some of them had been considered incurable.' P. 8.

We shall only add, that we earnestly wish success to so good an institution.

A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Woolwich, in the County of Kent, on Tuesday, October 16, 1798, before the Members of the Armed Association of Woolwich Loyal Volunteers. By G. A. Thomas, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

This discourse is not contemptible; but, while the preacher was exciting a spirit of loyalty, and of zeal against the common enemy, it was unnecessary to enter into a defence of the present ministers, or censure those who do not implicitly admit the propriety of their measures.

National Gratitude, enforced in a Sermon, preached in the Cathedral Church of Worcester, on Thursday, Nov. 29, 1798, the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving, &c. By the Rev. James Stillingfleet, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

We are better pleased with the effusions of loyalty, than with the order or composition discoverable in this discourse. It contains an odd mixture of politics and religion, and frequent digressions from one to the other. We cannot perceive what concern the doctrines of the Trinity, original sin, imputed righteousness, &c. and harsh censures thrown out upon all who do not hold such sentiments, have with a day of national thanksgiving, in which, we trust, persons of different opinions upon such points of religion cordially united in returning thanks to God for the signal victory obtained off the mouth of the Nile. It is to be lamented that any good men should discover such a narrow unchristian spirit, as if they thought that they could neither be grateful to God for his mercies, nor express their loyalty to the king, without reviling all who differ from them on religious or political subjects. We select the following quotation with pleasure, as affording a pleasing anecdote of his majesty.

'It is our's to proclaim the goodness and loving kindness of the Lord, to take up the song of Moses, and say, the Lord is a man of war, Jehovah is his name. He hath maintained our cause. The Lord hath done great things for us, whereof we rejoice. That this was the disposition of heart, in which his majesty received this important news, I have it in my power to announce upon the most unquestionable authority. I had myself, moreover, the honour of hearing from his royal lips, that he wished this great news might be received throughout the nation in a proper manner, by ascribing thanks and glory to him who ruleth above.' P. 32.

M E D I C I N E, &c.

The Effect of the Nitrous Vapour, in preventing and destroying Contagion; ascertained, from a Variety of Trials, made chiefly by Surgeons of his Majesty's Navy, in Prisons, Hospitals, and on Board of Ships: with an Introduction respecting the Nature of the Contagion, which gives rise to the Jail or Hospital Fever; and the various Methods formerly employed to prevent or destroy this. By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

From the reports of various naval surgeons, and numerous trials, the good effects of the nitrous vapour, in destroying contagion, and correcting the fœtor and malignity of old ulcers, appear to be well supported. What might be reasonably expected from theory, seems to be fully confirmed by experiment. In one instance, its utility in the whooping cough was observed, which may lead to a farther examination of its effects in this intractable disease. The introductory remarks on hospital fever are copied from a former work of Dr. Smyth on the fever of Winchester.

Observations and Experiments on the Broad-leaved Willow Bark, illustrated with Cases. By W. White, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1798.

Various species of the willow have been proposed as substitutes for the Peruvian bark; particularly the white willow by Dr. Cullen, and another species in the Transactions of the Royal Society, the source of some sarcastic but ill-founded pleasantries from sir John Hill. The whole genus is astringent. Numerous cases of the success of this bark are recorded.

Cautions to Women, respecting the State of Pregnancy; the Progress of Labour and Delivery; the Confinement of Child-bed; and some Constitutional Diseases: including Directions to Midwives and Nurses. To which are added, Observations on the Mode of recovering a still-born Infant; the Management of Children in the Month; and the Diseases of early Infancy; by Seguin Henry Jackson, M. D. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Robinsons.

We find nothing to blame in the cautions here suggested; but such advice sometimes terrifies the weak, and inspires a little of the spirit of quackery. The author, however, has no secret remedy to recommend; and his cautions are directed with judgement and expressed with delicacy.

T A C T I C S.

Instructions for Hussars, and Light Cavalry acting as such, in Time of War. A Translation. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton. 1798.

The translator of this manual thus introduces its character and purposes to the notice of the military reader:

‘ He has reason to think, that these instructions (which came into his hands in manuscript,) were in use in a body of troops, highly distinguished for its good conduct in one of the confederate armies, and that the principles inculcated in them are those, to which the best hussars now known conform. The reader will immediately perceive, that many ideas, and, in some places, nearly whole paragraphs occur in them, which are to be found in those given by the king of Prussia to his light cavalry; but this, as the translator is much more anxious for the utility of this work, than that it should wear an appearance of originality, he must consider as an advantage, which it possesses. A treatise of this sort should be a compilation of such ideas alone, as experience has either suggested, or approved. In general, these instructions are more detailed than the king of Prussia's; but where-ever they appear to have omitted any thing essential contained in his, it is added in a note. Use has likewise been occasionally made in them of count Turpin's *Essai sur l'Art de la Guerre*. A few notes have been subjoined from such parts of Lindenau's *Treatise upon Winter Posts*, as were applicable.

‘ As the precepts here laid down are purely practical, the greatest simplicity of style has been adopted, in order that it may be impossible to misunderstand the meaning intended to be conveyed; and a foreign idiom has been allowed to prevail in some places, where our own was less adequate to present the precise idea offered by the original.’ p. viii.

Those who wish to enlarge their acquaintance with that part of the military science which consists in the command of cavalry, will derive many useful hints from the perusal of this performance.

Secret Instructions, by Frederick the Second, King of Prussia: being Secret Orders given by that Monarch to the Officers of his Army, and particularly to those of the Cavalry, for the Regulation of their Conduct in War. Translated from the original German, into French, by the Prince de Ligne, and now first translated into English. 8vo. 3s. Williams. 1798.

The reputation of this work is established on the continent, where the skill and prowess of the great Frederic were frequently displayed; and colonel Eyre deserves the thanks of the British army for his translation of it, which, though not elegant, is faithful.

Remarks on Cavalry; by the Prussian Major-general of Hussars, Warnery. Translated from the Original. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Egerton. 1798.

The original of this work is ranked among the most esteemed publications of the kind. The present translation is accompanied with plates descriptive of the various species of cavalry, and will afford much valuable instruction to the volunteer or regular officers connected with that branch of the service.

Instructions for the Armed Yeomanry. By Sir W. Young, Bart. a Captain of Armed Yeomanry in the County of Bucks. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Egerton. 1798.

The activity with which the yeomen of the country have taken arms for its protection, merits the warmest effusions of British gratitude. Next to zeal and courage, correctness of discipline is requisite in the armed citizen as well as in the regular soldier; and we are persuaded that the intention of the worthy baronet, in compiling this manual of instructions, will be fully answered by an adoption of its rules among those troops which form the true constitutional defence of Great-Britain.

The Light-Horse Drill : describing the several Evolutions in a progressive Series, from the first Rudiments, to the Manœuvres of the Squadron : (Illustrated with Copper Plates) designed for the use of the Privates and Officers of the Volunteer Corps of Great Britain. 4to. Parts I. and II. 7s. each. Robinsons. 1799.

The gentlemen of the cavalry volunteer associations, from a careful perusal of this drill system, may acquire a correct theoretical acquaintance with the different manœuvres which constitute their duty in the field.

EDUCATION.

An Explanatory Pronouncing Dictionary of the French Language (in French and English) ; wherein the exact Sound and Articulation of every Syllable are distinctly marked (according to the Method adopted by Mr. Walker, in his Pronouncing Dictionary). To which are prefixed, the Principles of the French Pronunciation ; Prefatory Directions for using the Spelling representative of every Sound ; and the Conjugation of the Verbs, Regular, Irregular, and Defective, with their true Pronunciation. By l'Abbé Tardy. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Bound. Clarke. 1799.

The compiler of this dictionary may claim the merit of diligence; and the work, upon the whole, is an useful guide to the pronunciation of the French tongue, though many of the sounds are not clearly or correctly explained. The significations of the words are, for the greater part, as accurately given as the limits which the abbé prescribed to himself would allow.

A Theoretical and Practical Grammar of the French Tongue, in which the present Usage on Pronunciation, Orthography, and the Rules of Syntax, is developed, and all great Difficulties cleared up, according to the Decisions of the French Academy. By M. de Lévizac. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Dulau. 1799.

As this work agrees in substance with one which we reviewed on a former occasion *, written in French by the same author, we

* See our XXXIII. Vol. New Arr. p. 346.

need not dwell upon it, but shall only say that it will prove, in general, an accurate guide to the learners of the French language.

The Genders of the French Substantives, alphabetically arranged according to their Terminations. By B. Arleville. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Bound. Phillips.

This performance is as accurate as most works of the kind. It is followed by M. Bridel's table of articles, and a list of all those words, at the beginning of which the *h* is aspirated.

Entertaining and Instructive Exercises, with the Rules of the French Syntax. By John Perrin. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Law.

This is the eighth edition of an useful work; and it has received some corrections from the hands of M. Tocquot.

The Latin Primer: in three Parts, &c. By the Rev. Richard Lyne, &c. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Law. 1797.

We praised this work on its first appearance; and we have only now to announce an improved edition of it.

The Crested Wren. By Edward Augustus Kendall. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Newbery. 1799.

This little volume greatly exceeds in merit many bulky performances which we have been under the necessity of perusing; and we may affirm, that Mrs. Newbery's juvenile library contains few, if any, books more engagingly adapted to the instruction of youth than the 'Crested Wren.'

P O E T R Y.

Fears in Solitude, written in 1798, during the Alarm of an Invasion. To which are added, France, an Ode; and Frost at Midnight, By S. T. Coleridge. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

A poem by Mr. Coleridge must attract the attention of all who are capable of understanding the beauties of poetry. The present publication has all the characteristic excellencies of his former ones. The opinions expressed are not indeed the same: without being a ministerialist, Mr. Coleridge has become an alarmist. He pictures the horrors of invasion, and joins the war-whoop against what he calls

‘ an impious foe,
Impious and false, a light yet cruel race,
That laugh away all virtue, mingling mirth
With deeds of murder.’ p. 7.

The ode entitled France is in the same strain; and it has even been copied into a miscellaneous volume under the title of *The Recantation*.

But those who conceive that Mr. Coleridge has, in these poems,

recanted his former principles, should consider the general tenor of them. The following passage surely is not written in conformity with the fashionable opinions of the day.

‘ From east to west

A groan of accusation pierces heaven!
 The wretched plead against us, multitudes
 Countless and vehement, the sons of God,
 Our brethren! like a cloud that travels on,
 Steam’d up from Cairo’s swamps of pestilence,
 Ev’n so, my countrymen! have we gone forth
 And borne to distant tribes slavery and pangs,
 And, deadlier far, our vices, whose deep taint
 With slow perdition murders the whole man,
 His body and his soul! Meanwhile, at home,
 We have been drinking with a riotous thirst
 Pollutions from the brimming cup of wealth,
 A selfish, lewd, effeminated race,
 Contemptuous of all honourable rule,
 Yet bartering freedom, and the poor man’s life,
 For gold, as at a market! The sweet words
 Of Christian promise, words that even yet
 Might stem destruction, were they wisely preach’d,
 Are mutter’d o’er by men, whose tones proclaim,
 How flat and wearisome they feel their trade.
 Rank scoffers some, but most too indolent,
 To deem them falsehoods, or to know their truth.
 O blasphemous! the book of life is made
 A superstitious instrument, on which
 We gabble o’er the oaths we mean to break,
 For all must swear—all, and in every place,
 College and wharf, council and justice-court,
 All, all must swear, the briber and the brib’d,
 Merchant and lawyer, senator and priest,
 The rich, the poor, the old man, and the young,
 All, all make up one scheme of perjury,
 That faith doth reel: the very name of God
 Sounds like a juggler’s charm; and bold with joy,
 Forth from his dark and lonely hiding-place
 (Portentous sight) the owlet, Atheism,
 Sailing on obscene wings thwart the noon,
 Drops his blue-fringed lids, and holds them close,
 And, hooting at the glorious sun in heaven,
 Cries out, “where is it?”

‘ Thankless too for peace,

(Peace long preserv’d by fleets and perilous seas)
 Secure from actual warfare, we have lov’d
 To swell the war-whoop, passionate for war!

Alas! for ages ignorant of all
 It's ghastlier workings (famine or blue plague,
 Battle, or siege, or flight thro' wintry snows)
 We, this whole people, have been clamorous
 For war and bloodshed, animating sports,
 The which we pay for, as a thing to talk of,
 Spectators and not combatants! no guess
 Anticipative of a wrong unfelt,
 No speculation on contingency,
 However dim and vague, too vague and dim
 To yield a justifying cause: and forth
 (Stuff'd out with big preamble, holy names,
 And adjurations of the God in heaven)
 We send our mandates for the certain death
 Of thousands and ten thousands! Boys and girls,
 And women that would groan to see a child
 Pull off an insect's leg, all read of war,
 The best amusement for our morning meal!
 The poor wretch, who has learnt his only prayers
 From curses, who knows scarcely words enough
 To ask a blessing of his heavenly Father,
 Becomes a fluent phraseman, absolute
 And technical in victories and defeats,
 And all our dainty terms for fratricide,
 Terms which we trundle smoothly o'er our tongues
 Like mere abstractions, empty sounds to which
 We join no feeling and attach no form,
 As if the soldier died without a wound;
 As if the fibres of this godlike frame
 Were gor'd without a pang: as if the wretch,
 Who fell in battle doing bloody deeds,
 Pass'd off to heaven, translated and not kill'd;
 As tho' he had no wife to pine for him,
 No God to judge him!—Therefore evil days
 Are coming on us, O my countrymen!
 And what if all avenging Providence,
 Strong and retributive, should make us know
 The meaning of our words, force us to feel
 The desolation and the agony
 Of our fierce doings?— P. 3.

The conclusion of the ode is very ridiculous.

' Yes! while I stood and gaz'd, my temples bare,
 And shot my being thro' earth, sea, and air,
 Possessing all things with intensest love,
 O Liberty, my spirit felt thee there!' P. 18.

What does Mr. Coleridge mean by liberty in this passage? or what connexion has it with the subject of civil freedom?

The concluding poem is very beautiful; but the lines respecting the film occupy too great a part of it. The first poem strikes us as the best; the passage we have quoted from it is admirable; and we could have given many of equal beauty.

The Pursuit of Happiness, a Poem, addressed to a Friend. 4to. 2s.
Faulder. 1799.

This is a moral poem of nearly eight hundred lines, which the annexed extract will enable our readers to estimate.

‘ Weigh the great deeds, let reason poize the beam,
The vast achievement, and the daring scheme
Of crafty Philip, politic, and brave,
Who forg’d the chains for Greece, a willing slave;
Where arts, fair science, and true valor shone
In lustrous blaze, and freedom all her own.
Whilst in her senates, virtue did preside,
Direct her projects, and her councils guide,
In vain the slavish east, with swarming hosts,
Drank up her seas, and storm’d her rocky coasts,
When softening luxury, sly, deceptive foe,
Sapp’d every rank, and laid stern virtue low,
Each spark of glory fuming died away,
And the bold monarch seized th’ inglorious prey.
‘Mid conquest’s dazzling glare, where oft the mind,
To the sweet call of meek-eyed pity’s blind,
The wary chief, ambition would controul,
And shake the rod of vengeance o’er his soul,
Wak’d to this maxim, which his page began,
“ Remember, Philip, that thou art a man;”
This awful hint, dread bane to human pride
Awaken’d conscience, life’s unerring guide.

‘ Here found his praise, and give the merit due—
But see him reeling ’midst his drunken crew,
Immers’d in vice, where flattery, wine, and noise,
Are madly deem’d the sum of earthly joys;
And hear the sottish boast—there’s not a soul
In Greece, with me can quaff the sparkling bowl.
How vain, how various, great, yet basely low,
A mighty conqueror, and a drunken foe!
First in the revels, or the laurell’d plain,
First in the ranks, and first to mock the slain.
Ah, vile, and grovelling, how could’st thou degrade
The meed of conquest, war’s infernal trade?
Is’t not enough, red slaughter wields the sword,
But the fall’n foe must feel thy taunting word?
The grin of fury, and the smile of scorn,
Are by the bleeding victim hardly borne.

To scoff at misery, and insult with mirth
 The helpless, shews a mind of hellish birth.
 This, Philip, was thy shame in that dread hour,
 When ill judg'd conquest gave thee lawless power,
 Where was thy boding page, was he not near,
 To ring this maxim in thy deafen'd ear,
 And warn thee loudly, this vile deed to scan,
 Since conquering Philip's far below a man.' P. 12.

The Irish Boy. A Ballad. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley. 1799.

This is a melancholy narration of atrocities which have been too common in Ireland. The design is better than the poetry.

Review of Poetry, Ancient and Modern. A Poem. By Lady Manners. 4to. 2s. 6d. Booth. 1799.

The mere expression of the writer's opinions in easy rhymes.

D R A M A.

The Horse and the Widow, a Farce, as performed with universal Applause at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. Altered from the German of A. Von Kotzebue, and adapted to the English Stage by Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 1s. Barker. 1799.

Touchwood has inherited a large fortune on condition that he should never marry a widow or keep a horse. He has married a supposed widow; but, as she was a French countess, and the marriage took place in Flanders, he hopes to conceal the circumstance. A French nobleman in the neighbourhood sends to borrow money of him, and leaves his horse as security: a lawyer comes to take possession of the property, alleging that Touchwood has forfeited it: but he is saved by discovering in the Frenchman his wife's first husband, and finding the horse to be a mule.—This nonsense is from the pen of Kotzebue!

Due Tragedie di Gaetano Polidori, Maestro di Lingua Italiana in Londra. 12mo. 2s. Dulau. 1798.

Two Tragedies by Polidori.

The death of Don Carlos, so often dramatised, is the subject of the first of these pieces. Love is the principle that pervades it; and it is also the foundation of the other play: but the passion is too violent, and the sudden repentance of Gernando is not sufficiently natural to be dramatic.

The Virgin of the Sun, a Play in five Acts, Translated from the German of Kotzebue. By James Lawrence, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Faulder. 1799.

After our account of miss Plumptre's translation of this drama (see p. 204), it is sufficient to announce this.

NOVELS, &c.

Idégerie, Queen of Norway. From the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. By Benjamin Thompson, Junior. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Lane. 1798.

The dramatic celebrity of Kotzebue will doubtless recommend this piece to the notice of the English reader: it is a romance illustrative of the chivalrous bravery of the northern nations, and interspersed with the doctrines of the runic mythology. Of the incidents no more can be said than that they would form a *showy* pantomime for one of our winter theatres: there are, however, many sentiments which breathe the candour of genius and of virtue, and which are conveyed with due eloquence in the language of the translator, who has proved himself capable of doing justice to the effusions of his author.

Helen Sinclair: a Novel. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

Neither the characters nor the sentiments of this novel rise above mediocrity; but the story is interesting, and faithfully exhibits the aristocratic pride of such *noble* families as despise and neglect that part of their kindred which may have descended to a plebeian alliance. The language in which the story is conveyed is in general neat and unaffected; and the authoress discovers a correct acquaintance with the scenes of fashionable life.

Lindor; or, Early Engagements. A Novel. By the Author of the English Nun, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Treppass. 1798.

This is a convenient *summer* novel, as it will not fatigue the reader by the complexity of its plot, or by the profundity of its sentiments. We may add, that it may teach the misses and masters, into whose hands it may fall, the folly of contracting love engagements before they are out of their teens.

Gil Blas Corrigé; ou Histoire de Gil Blas de Santillane, par M. le Sage; dont on a retranché les Expressions et Passages contraires à la Décence, à la Religion, et aux Mœurs, et à laquelle on a ajouté un Recueil de Traits brillans, des plus célèbres Poètes François. Par J. N. Osmond.

Gil Blas Corrected; or the History of Gil Blas of Santillane, divested of all Remarks repugnant to Decency, Religion, and Good Manners; to which are added striking Passages from the most distinguished French Poets. By J. M. Osmond. 4 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards. Lackington and Allen. 1798.

As there are various exceptionable passages in the novel of Gil Blas, M. Osmond has performed an acceptable service to parents, guardians, and tutors, in rendering that popular work more pure and moral, and consequently less injurious to youthful readers. It can-

not be expected that we should fully compare this publication with the unaltered novel; but, where we have had recourse to comparison, we have not had the least reason to object to the omissions.

A part of the fourth volume consists of extracts from Corneille, la Fontaine, Racine, Voltaire, and other poets. They appear to have been introduced merely for the purpose of eking out the volume.

Rasselas, Prince d'Abissinie; Roman, traduit de l'Anglois de Dr. Johnson, par le Comte de Fouchecour.

The Romance of Rasselas, translated into French by the Count de Fouchecour. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Lackington and Allen. 1798.

Numerous typographical errors deform this translation: but the execution of it is not contemptible; and some neat engravings, from the designs of Stothard, embellish the volume.

Marmontel's Tales, selected and abridged, for the Instruction and Amusement of Youth. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

Twelve tales are here presented to the reader; and the judgement of Mrs. Pilkington appears to advantage in the selection; but we would advise her to be more attentive to accuracy of language in her future publications.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Supplement to the Anecdotes of distinguished Persons, chiefly of the present and the two preceding Centuries. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This volume, according to the author's preface, brings his plan to a conclusion; and from its contents we see no reason to retract the favourable opinion which we expressed of the preceding parts*. Besides a large portion of selected matter, anecdotes, *bons mots*, &c. we have here many original letters from persons of distinction, which, though not all equally valuable, are at least pleasingly characteristic of their respective writers. One living author (dean Tucker) is introduced contrary to the plan; but we cannot dissent from the compliments paid to him. Collections of this kind are certainly a mark of the frivolity of the age; but, while there is a demand for them, it is pleasing to reflect that they are prepared by men of Mr. Seward's judgement and taste, and that instruction is made to preponderate over mere entertainment.

Selections from the French Anas: containing Remarks of eminent Scholars on Men and Books. Together with Anecdotes and Apophthegms of illustrious Persons. Interspersed with Pieces of Poetry. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Robinsons.

Those to whom Mr. Seward's Anecdotes have been acceptable

* See our XVth Vol. New Arr. p. 299, and Vol. XIX. p. 356.

will find a valuable addition to their stock in these volumes. The compiler has selected those passages which seemed to him to possess the most general tendency to amuse and instruct, 'adding notes where the articles could be usefully expanded or illustrated.' He has also given biographical sketches of the respective authors; a matter of some importance to English readers. The poetical parts are pleasing; and we are perhaps justified in affirming that there are few works in our language more entertaining than these *Selections*.

The Fallacy of French Freedom, and dangerous Tendency of Sterne's Writings. Or an Essay shewing that Irreligion and Immorality pave the Way for Tyranny and Anarchy; and that Sterne's Writings are both irreligious and immoral: concluding with some Observations on the present State of France. By D. Whyte, M. D. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1799.

This author maintains that Sterne's writings are immoral and indecent; that the French are immoral, indecent, and *nasty*, and will never be happy without a king; and that Buonaparte might have been king, 'had he known how to profit by the power he lately possessed.' In endeavouring to prove these assertions, if we except the first, our author's good intentions are more conspicuous than his powers.

Passages selected by distinguished Personages, on the great Literary Trial of Vortigern and Rowena; a Comi-Tragedy. Vol. III. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

In the former volumes of this vehicle of political and private scandal, we discovered some marks of genuine humour and elegance of sentiment; but these are articles of which the author or authors had not a sufficient stock for a third collection. Dullness and spleen, with a few affected compliments, may, however, suit the depraved taste of many readers, and produce a fourth or a fifth volume as good as the present. We would recommend to the admirers of such publications the 'genealogy of true and false humour' in the 35th paper of the *Spectator*.

An Address to the Loyal Volunteer Corps of Great Britain: in two Parts. By Robert Hardy, M. A. 8vo. 2s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1799.

The trite observations which constitute this address are as little calculated to inform an intelligent mind, as the language in which they are conveyed is to please a polished and susceptible one. The author, in loose declamation, recommends the observance of the external rites of religion, and defends the sacredness of the priesthood.

City Biography, containing Anecdotes and Memoirs of the Rise, Progress, Situation, and Character, of the Aldermen and other conspicuous Personages of the Corporation and City of London. 8vo. 2s. 6d. West. 1799.

This seeming resource of some distressed author for a dinner in-

duces us to wish, for our sake and his own, that he had been an alderman rather than a biographer.

The Rise, Progress, and Proceedings, of a Corps of Volunteers, shewing how Thirty Republicans have endeavoured to make Five Hundred Loyal Gentlemen truly laughable. To which is added a Letter addressed to the Republicans only, giving them Advice, how they may manage Matters in future, as not so completely to expose themselves. By a Loyal Volunteer. 8vo. 1s. Printed for the Author. 1799.

Dancing Masteriana, or Biographic Sketches for an inquisitive Public; being the true Style of a Dancing Master exhibiting his Pupils by an elegant Ball. To which are added five Letters, none of which have any Thing to do with the Dancing Master's Ball. 8vo. 1s. Printed for the Author. 1799.

We are extremely sorry for the quarrel between this *loyal volunteer* and the corps to which he belonged, as it appears to have prompted him, from the motive of revenge, to become an author.

Supplement to the Progress of Satire, containing Remarks on the Pursuer of Literature's Defence. 8vo. 1s. Bell. 1799.

A Letter to the Executor of the deceased Author of the Pursuits of Literature, wherein Mention is also made of the Poem called The Shade of A. Pope on the Banks of the Thames: by a Friend to the Author of the Impartial Strictures. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell. 1799.

Able and temperate attacks upon the anonymous satirist.

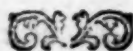
The Young Exiles, or, Correspondence of some Juvenile Emigrants: a Work intended for the Entertainment and Instruction of Youth. From the French of Madame de Genlis. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Wright. 1799.

The original of this work was reviewed in our last Appendix. The translation is executed with neatness and fidelity.

ANSWER TO A CORRESPONDENT.

When we objected to the omission of the *hunc propter* in Mr. Good's version of some lines in Lucretius, we did not consider *propter* as a preposition of *motive*, but of *place*. His vindication, therefore, is founded upon a misconception of our meaning; and we may still affirm, that the beauty of the original is impaired by the omission.

S. HAMILTON, *Falcon-court,*
Fleet-street, London.



A P P E N D I X

TO THE TWENTY-SIXTH VOLUME

OF THE NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Précis de l'Histoire Universelle, ou Tableau Historique, présentant les Vicissitudes des Nations, leur Aggrandissement, leur Décadence, et leurs Catastrophes, depuis le Tems où elles ont commencé à être connues jusqu'au Moment actuel. Par le Cit. Anquetil. Paris. 1799.

A Summary of Universal History, or an Historical Picture of the Vicissitudes of Nations, their Aggrandisement, Decline, and Fall; from the Time when they first became known, to the present Moment. By Citizen Anquetil. 9 Vols. 12mo. Imported by Dulau. 1799.

THE author of this work must not be confounded with the orientalist, Anquetil du Perron. At the close of his preface he gives a catalogue of his own publications, the History of Rheims, Spirit of the League, &c. whence it appears that his previous studies were devoted to modern history.

‘I have read,’ says he, ‘with attention the “Universal History from the beginning of the world to the present time,” composed successively by several societies of men of letters. That work appeared to me, upon the whole, excellent; and its merit led me to wish that the hundred and twenty-six volumes, in octavo, might be abridged to a very small number, without the omission of any thing essential; as much for the satisfaction of those who have not time to read so voluminous a collection, as for the benefit of others who cannot afford to purchase it.

‘What was not done for my use I have attempted for that of others. Nearly ten years have elapsed since I began this task. This work has not only formed an agreeable occupation, but has often interested me by the similitude of past events to those which have occurred during the continuance of my labour. I even believe that by the presence of objects so much resembling those of ancient times, a vivacity and warmth, which otherwise would not have appeared, have been occasionally given to some parts of the narrative.

‘It is, as I have found, in the whirlwind of a revolution, amidst the ruins which it gathers, in the deep solitude of a prison, under the menacing axe of executioners, that one reads with real utility the history of the perfidies and cruelties which have troubled the universe, and rendered it a scene of blood.

‘If there remained, for example, any doubts concerning the extent and the mischiefs of the proscriptions of Marius and Sylla, the cold and ironical iniquity of the tribunal of Prænestæ, the victims brought in crowds to the public places, and falling under the sword, or torn to pieces by the populace; the assassination of four thousand men near the senate, which heard the cries of their despair, and yells of their agony;—in fine, if any doubts remained concerning similar acts, they would disappear at the sight of our revolutionary tribunals—at the view of funeral cars, conveying to death the helplessness of age and the innocence of youth, the daughter and the mother, the husband with his new-married wife—of that populace which eyed the whole with stupidity or ferocity—of the caverns, the quarries, the cellars, which were opened to receive the exuberance of carcases—of the still palpitating bodies thrown into the rivers, and those swallowed up alive in the waters, fastened together with chains—of the proscribed wretches stabbed or cut down in the prisons—and monsters (I shudder while I write) monsters who delighted in such spectacles; and forbade or even punished tears! All these facts, when we witness them, dreadfully confirm the truth of history.’

M. Anquetil proceeds to state, that in his abridgment he has been constrained to neglect the severe order of chronology, and to omit many geographical illustrations, for which he refers to the original French Universal History. He has, however, added the history of Scotland and Ireland, which the original authors had blended with that of England; and he has subjoined what was necessary to continue the histories of France, Sweden, Denmark, Poland, Russia, and some other states, down to our own times.

He has thus given his own opinion of the work. As he has attained the advanced age of seventy-six, and his memory is

far from being perfect, he has read it without any *reminiscence*, and as he would read the production of another, and found that it contained all he wished to know of the history of nations; a decision in which more scientific readers will not acquiesce, though it may be confirmed by the plurality of suffrages.

To each volume is prefixed a table of contents; in which if the author had marked the chronology, an additional value would have been conferred on the whole publication.

The first volume begins with the creation, and embraces the biblical history, that of Egypt, Syria, Phœnicia, Babylon, Persia, Phrygia, and Greece.

The author seldom displays any originality of thought, but adopts the opinions and errors of his predecessors*. Thus, in beginning the history of Egypt with a short description of that remarkable country, he speaks of the hundred gates of Thebes as being gates of the city. Pococke and other travellers express their doubts whether Thebes ever was surrounded with walls: Browne indeed infers that it was, but he could discover only two gates. Homer in fact is speaking of the gates of the palaces, the mansions of a hundred princes. The same manners will often remain in a country, in spite of time, and changes of government. The late Mamlouk beys kept bands of soldiers lodged in their own palaces.

As a specimen, not altogether trivial, we will extract from the first volume the commencement of the history of Sidon and Tyre.

The inhabitants of these cities were renowned for their elegant works in wood, iron, gold and silver, and other metals, and for the whiteness and fineness of the linen which they manufactured. It is believed that glass was invented by the people of Tyre. On its coast was found a small shell, which yielded the celebrated purple dye, but which is not found in our times. Tyre was first built on the continent, then in an isle opposite, and lastly in the same isle, formed into a peninsula by a mound, upon which the houses were extended. It appears by the ruins, which are not very magnificent, that the inhabitants, being sensible, as merchants, of the advantages of œconomy, built rather for utility than for splendor; though perhaps the circumscribed limits of the spot did not admit large edifices. Towards Sidon are still some reliques of magnificence, common to both cities; among others a large cistern, which, after having supplied Sidon, conveyed its waters to Tyre. When

* It must not, however, be forgotten, that M. Anquetil is only the epitomiser, and that our strictures fall on the authors of the French Universal History.

the latter city was confined to the isle, the two, and a third named Aradus, were so nearly adjacent, that Tripoli, so named as consisting of three towns, covers their territory, without our being able to say on which side it extends the most.

‘ Sidon was the habitation of the great, and Tyre that of the merchants. The latter had two ports, one for winter, another for summer; or rather, by a favourable curvature of the coast, ships might arrive and depart at any season. The cities of Phœnicia were not confined to the three already mentioned. The country, still abounding with hills of rubbish, surrounded with scattered fragments, shows the existence of towns in greater number, than could have been expected in so small a country, if not vivified by commerce.

‘ Some of these cities were republics; others were subjected to kings. Fabulous history names the first princes Agenor and Phoenix, from the latter of whom Phœnicia derived its appellation. Cadmus, by their order, went in search of his sister Europa to Greece, where he found treasures, and established kingdoms; a mere indication of commercial expeditions.

‘ The first king of Sidon was Sidon, the son of Chanaan. After him a long interval appears, till Tetramnestus, who furnished three hundred galleys to Xerxes against the Greeks; whether as ally or tributary is unknown. Under Tennes his successor the Sidonians revolted; and Darius Ochus marched against them with all his forces, being determined either to vanquish or extirpate them. After having defended themselves with vigour, they spoke of yielding on terms; but among them were some traitors, and the king of Sidon himself abandoned his people. Their envoys were massacred in the Persian camp: the enemy entered the city by the connivance of the king, who remained with the Persians. The wretched inhabitants, reduced to despair, shut themselves up in their houses with their wives and children, set fire to them, and buried themselves under the ruins. The ashes alone were left to Darius, who nevertheless drew from them great wealth in melted metals, and some of the precious effects which had escaped the flames. The feeble prince, who had deserted his subjects, gained nothing by his baseness: the victor despised him, and put him to death.

‘ Some Sidonian families had escaped in their ships from the barbarity of Darius. After his departure they returned to the smoking ruins of their city, which they rebuilt, though they could not restore its former splendor. Their hatred against the Persians became inveterate; so that, when Alexander appeared before Sidon, the gates were opened, in spite of the king Straton, who was deposed; and Alexander placed on the throne a man who, by his wisdom and virtues, had en-

gaged the esteem of his fellow-citizens. He was named Abdalonymus. The deputies, sent by the conqueror to offer him the crown, found him employed in his garden, which he exchanged with regret for a kingdom that he was also to fertilise. He rendered his people happy, and justified the choice of Alexander.

The chief heads of the second volume are Sicily, the Greek islands, Macedon, the Seleucides, the Ptolemies, Armenia, Pontus, &c. In the third is contained an abstract of Roman history, from the time of Æneas to the reign of Galba. The greater part of the fourth volume contains the Roman history, and that of the Byzantine empire, till it was terminated by the Turkish conquest. The remainder is occupied with the history of Carthage, and other African states; and with that of the Gothic, Sarmatic, and Hunnish or Tartaric tribes.

‘The Carthaginians’ (says our author) ‘possessed great part of Spain and Sicily, with some isles in the Mediterranean, and they had also commercial establishments in some other countries; but their state, properly so called, comprised what is now called the kingdom of Tunis. This last place formed a part of their domain. Utica was next in rank to the capital, and was followed by Hippo. We shall not speak of other towns which studded the coast, or were scattered over the continent. The greater part stood upon lakes, which are not uncommon in that division of Africa. The inhabitants availed themselves of all the cultivable land amidst the burning sands with which they were surrounded. But all their industry could only produce a fertility restricted to the borders of the lakes, and of the inconsiderable rivers. As to the country around Carthage, it was very fertile.’

‘It is believed that the first government of Carthage was monarchical; nor is it known at what period it became republican. In the latter form it consisted of the people, a numerous senate, and two *suffetes*, or magistrates who presided in the senate. The *suffetes* resembled the two consuls of Rome, or the kings of Lacedæmon; but the more strict resemblance was to the former, as they were not chosen for their lives. They were selected from the richest class, that they might support their elevation with due splendor. The senators were chosen by the people, or appointed by the senate; but the particular form is not known. When the senate was unanimous, its voice was law; but when opposition arose, or the *suffetes* objected, the affair was brought before the people, whose decision was final. To this circumstance, according to Polybius, the ruin of Carthage may be imputed, because in the last Punic war the populace, enthralled by demagogues, overcame the senate.’

‘ There were also two kinds of tribunals, the destination and authority of which can only be conjectured—the hundred, or council of one hundred, chosen from the body of senators, and the five selected from the hundred. It is probable that the hundred previously discussed affairs, and then proposed them to the senate; and that the five watched over the conduct of the others, even that of the *suffetes*, and constituted what at Venice were called *inquisitors of state*. Whatever the powers may have been, it appears that they were created and balanced with skill, since, in the history of this republic, no trace appears, for a great length of time, of any violent disturbance among the people, or of any oppression on the part of the government.

‘ The horrid custom of sacrificing children to an idol, supposed to be Saturn, and of burning them in honour of him, was long continued at Carthage. The children were selected from the chief families; and the mothers were obliged to assist at the sacrifice, and were respected in proportion to the apathy which they displayed. On occasions of public calamity no less than two hundred were sometimes the victims of this abominable superstition. There were few Egyptian, Greek, or Roman divinities, who were not worshiped by the Carthaginians with appropriated absurd rites; such as the prostitutions in the temples, the profit of which served as a marriage portion: but we may observe that such superstitions, subversive of all public morals, could not have been very generally practised.’

M. Anquetil proceeds, in his fifth volume, to detail the history of Mohammed and the *khalifs*. The Turks with their sultans next fill the scene; and they are followed by the Mongul khans and the *Sofis* of Persia. The annals of Hindoostan, of the nations thence to China, and of China itself and Japan, complete the volume. The pretended histories of many regions, however, are merely geographical descriptions; and the author has not had recourse to the latest accounts. His idea of Jedso, for example, is full of difficulties, which might have been removed by a glance at the voyage of *la Pérouse*.

The sixth volume commences with a brief history of ancient and modern commerce. This is followed by the history of the Ottoman sultans—of the Jews, continued by centuries to the present time—and of Egypt and Africa in general.

In giving a rapid idea of the history of French commerce, our author thus enters on the subject.

‘ It is asked why the French, so active and enterprising, were so late in their commercial attempts in India, and met with so little success. It is answered that the causes are, the abundance of the country, which suffices in itself for both con-

sumption and exchange; the faults of a government always changing its schemes, and open to all projects; and the national character, light, inconstant, and eager for change. In 1527, Francis I. encouraged his subjects to undertake long voyages; and in 1543 he renewed his exhortations. In 1575 assistance was offered to those who would undertake voyages of discovery, but no enterprise of moment followed. Henry IV. formed a company in 1604: it did nothing: Louis XIII. in 1611, gave new encouragements; but they were of no avail. A new company was formed in 1615: two vessels sailed in 1617, three in 1619. Yet so small was the expectation from India, that it was deemed prudent to confine the enterprises to Madagascar.

Colbert, notwithstanding his extensive genius, was restricted to those confined views, because he could do no more. It was necessary to give an impulse to the nation. The pens of the most celebrated academicians were employed; and memoirs were scattered in profusion, which showed the fairest perspective, and prophesied the most ample success. The intervention of parliaments secured the shares. The king gave three hundred thousand livres. Through policy, or zeal, the greater part of the lords of the court subscribed; and their example was followed by the generality of the rich. In 1665 four ships, replenished with every thing necessary to revictual and increase the colony, were dispatched to Madagascar, to which the name of *Isle du Dauphin* was given. In 1667 vessels were sent from this station to Cochin. While they were on this expedition, the colonists of Madagascar, finding themselves in a fertile and agreeable country, adapted for hunting and other diversions, gave themselves up entirely to them, without thinking of the company which paid and supported them. In return the latter requested the king to resume the island, where few of these pretended merchants remained, and whence the most useful of them were transported to Surat in 1670.

Our author thus introduces the history of Africa.

'This country, which the Romans styled *fertile in monsters*, too well justifies the appellation, whether it be understood of cruel and voracious animals, or of men as ferocious, or lastly of monstrous manners and prejudices. It is a peninsula, connected with Asia by a strip of land about thirty leagues wide, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. The interior of this vast continent is little known, for two reasons: 1. Travelling is very difficult, because the inhabitants, full of distrust for Europeans, whom they regard as leagued in a general design of seizing the mines of gold, their chief wealth, do not permit them to penetrate into the country: 2. The obstinacy

of the natives, in preserving a strict silence concerning the real state of their country, is invincible. Even the slaves exported from this continent cannot be induced to speak, by promises, caresses, threats, or rigor; or, if they speak, it is only to deceive, and not to give any just idea of their religion, of their customs, their commerce, or any other topics which might please or interest. Hence the little we know of Africa is due to the relations of a few missionaries, who have escaped the ferocity of the savages, and have been able to undergo the severities of the climate and the fatigue of travelling.'

Part of the account of the empire of Monomotapa may interest the present general curiosity concerning interior Africa.

'The vast empire of Monomotapa, which in many respects may be compared with that of Abyssinia, extends, as is reported, from seven to eight hundred leagues in circumference. The air is in general healthy, and the soil fertile, though the mountains are covered with snow, while the plains are parched with heat. It is remarked with astonishment that the people, distant from the tropic, are real negroes; while, in the parts of Libya and America which have the sun in their zenith, the inhabitants are neither of a black colour, nor have woolly hair. Young people here go almost naked, while the old cover their lower parts. Polygamy is practised; but the first-married wife remains the mistress of the house, and her children are the heirs. It is not permitted, even at court, to wear stuffs of foreign fabric, lest charms should be interwoven. A political law is thus supported by superstition, in order to enforce its observance.

'The court of the emperor is magnificent: when he appears in ceremony, he wears a little spade hanging by his side, the emblem of cultivation; and in each hand he holds an arrow, one to chastise, the other to protect. The government is very mild, and there are no taxes. The emperor only requires some days of work; and even on those he feeds the labourers, so that the service is sought, not shunned. The children of the tributary princes, or great officers, are educated in the court: they are trained in fidelity to their sovereign, and serve as pledges for that of their relatives. Every year the monarch sends to each province an officer, upon whose arrival the fires are extinguished, and from whose hands a new flame is received. To refuse this ceremony is to revolt; whence it serves as an oath of fidelity. The monarchs are much beloved by their people, whose affection they preserve by frequent tokens of benevolence. When the emperor drinks, sneezes, or coughs, one of the grandees present exclaims, "Pray for the emperor's health and prosperity!"

the shout goes round, and is continued even to the extremity of the empire.

Justice is prompt and severe: there is a purgative draught, resembling the bitter waters of the Jews; he who is not incommoded by it is declared innocent. The capital is neat. There are an empress and nine queens, each having her own court; one is protectress of the Portuguese, another of the Moors; and each has her province of public business. The harvest is a high festival: the emperor is commonly present at it: but, if war or other avocations prevent his attendance, the empress presides. In the train of the court there are always dancers, musicians, and buffoons, for the amusement of the people; and the chiefs of these bands are esteemed men of consequence. There are regular armies set on foot alternately. It is believed that there is a province inhabited by Amazons: it is at least certain that there are in the armies bodies of women, whose arms are the bow, the javelin, the sabre, the cutlass, the poignard, and light sharp axes: they are trained from their infancy, and thus acquire great address. The emperor prefers them for the guard of his person. He has also a kennel of two hundred dogs, whom he regards as not less faithful protectors.

The story of the last emperor of Monomotapa of whom we have heard, is this. A war having arisen among the sons of Famigar Bachi, who had left sixty-four, all were slain except three. Two agreed to share the throne, each reigning six months in the year. The first who held the sceptre cut off the other, and was himself slain by his uncle Nahi, who seized the crown. The third had saved himself in a distant kingdom, where he purchased some land, which he cultivated with his own hands, and lived unknown. Having married, he had a son named Alfondi, who was loved and admired by all around him for his modesty and sweetness of disposition, joined with wit and knowledge.

Having heard of a war in Monomotapa, between Nahi and a neighbouring potentate, Alfondi provided himself with arms and horses, and, at the head of a select band, offered his services to the emperor. It was not long before he signalised himself by exploits which attracted the admiration of the whole army. Nahi, in particular, was so pleased with his conduct that he gave him the command of a large corps, at the head of which he acquired such fame, that his merits were crowned by the appointment of commander in chief. In six months the young general gained so many battles, that the enemy sued for peace. To recompense him for his services, the emperor gave him in marriage the princess his daughter, without any suspicion of his birth; a subject on which even

Alfondi had not received from his father, or from any other person, the smallest hint. His goodness of heart prompted him to invite his father to witness and share his success. The old monarch soon recollected, in the father of his son-in-law, his own nephew, whose throne he had usurped; and he immediately resigned the sceptre to him. The new king transferring it to his son, Alfondi and his wife were crowned amidst the acclamations of the people, whose love and esteem he continued to merit by his justice and benefits. With some embellishments, an interesting African novel might be composed from this history.'

The adventures of the princess Zingha of Angola are also interesting, but are too long to be extracted. We shall close our survey of this volume with the account of Benin, after observing that the author might have improved the article of the Canary Islands, under which the history of his countryman Jean de Bethencourt, who conquered them in 1402, and was named king, is totally omitted. M. Anquetil shows equal inattention in deriving the Gallas of Abyssinia from the Gauls of France.

'The kingdom of Benin has a capital of the same name, which is not ill built for that country. The view of the market would not excite the gluttony of Europeans, as it presents dog-flesh, roasted apes, bats, rats, and lizards. The king is never approached except by three ministers, who state the requests of his subjects, and return his answers: it may be believed that these gentlemen alter them at their pleasure. On the apprehension of his demise, the monarch summons the chief minister, and tells him in secrecy which of his sons he would wish to have for his successor. . . . all the others are speedily murdered. At the king's funeral the body is thrown into a deep and narrow ditch; and after it as many courtiers, women, and officers, as the excavation will hold, are thrown alive. The ditch is then covered; but it is opened the next morning, when they are asked if they have joined their king; and silence is supposed to be consent. On the following night the priests of the idols disperse themselves through the streets, killing without distinction all whom they meet, that the king may not be without a body of subjects in the other world.

'Nevertheless the inhabitants of Benin have the character of being mild, humane, and enemies of all violence. They are much addicted to women, but avoid obscene discourse, in which most other negroes indulge. Polygamy is general among them, as well as the circumcision of both sexes*. They are also very jealous among themselves, but not of Europeans; for

* Circumcision and excision. See Browne's Travels. Rev.

how can they suppose that any woman should have so depraved a taste, as to like a white monster? They visit, converse, and eat together—no usual circumstances among negroes. In Benin are some remains of ancient European practices—the ordeal by hot iron, immersion, and potions. They are afraid of their shadows, because they imagine them real beings, who will, at a future period, testify of their good or evil life: shadows are here more efficient than laws are in other countries. Their magistrates are distinguished by collars of coral, which it is death to lose.

The seventh, eighth, and ninth volumes comprehend the history of modern Europe.

In the seventh we meet with that of Spain, France, Savoy, Genoa, Parma, Milan, &c.

Amidst the multiplicity of topics we are at a loss which parts to select, as specimens of so extensive a work; but we will translate the commencement of the history of Savoy, as a portion not generally known.

‘Savoy is full of mountains, and not very fertile of grain; but it abounds in excellent pastures. There are mountains on which the snow and ice never melt. The game is highly praised; and fresh-water fish are found in abundance. Nature, very various in Savoy, recompenses the traveller for the uniformity of the wide plains of Piedmont; but the fertility of the latter country overbalances the pleasure of romantic prospects and picturesque beauties. Through all the states of the duke of Savoy are found forests, lakes, fountains, cascades, rivers, torrents, grottoes, sharp rocks, soft and verdant declivities. The most agreeable part is the county of Nice, on the Mediterranean: here the rigors of winter are never felt; the air is constantly mild, the sky serene; and the territory seems the abode of an eternal spring. The Savoyard is laborious: he loves his country, and never leaves it, except for the purpose of procuring supplies from other countries; and he returns to his own with new delight. He is famous for his attachment to his sovereigns.

‘Piedmont rears a considerable number of cattle. The inhabitants also deal largely in silk, which is the best in Italy. Sardinia imparts to the duke of Savoy the title of king. The air of this island, in the time of the Romans, was reckoned very unwholesome: hither were sent the exiles whose death was desired. By clearing the grounds, however, or other causes, this complaint has been removed. The inhabitants are a mixture, or (to speak more properly) the remains, of various nations which have inhabited the isle—Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Moors, and, more lately, Pisans and Genoese.

It is governed by a viceroy. It may be remarked that the king of Sardinia, whose states are the smallest among those of crowned heads, has three capitals, Cagliari in Sardinia, Chamberi in Savoy, and Turin in Piedmont: the last is his usual residence.

‘The principal inhabitants of Savoy, in the Roman period, were known under the name of Allobroges. They occupied that part of the Alps which the Romans called the citadel of Italy, because it was the most secure rampart which they had against the invasions of the western nations, particularly the Gauls. As the sea, by its flux and reflux, leaves pieces of water in occasional cavities, so the flux and reflux of nations, across the vast chain of rocks extending from the coast of Genoa to the gulf of Venice, must have left in the valleys tribes which survived the tempest that overturned the Roman empire:

‘Little is known of what passed in these rocks, till the middle of the eighth century. About the year 750, a count de Maurienne was seen to extend his domination over the small states which surrounded him. History then reposes for some centuries, and shows us, about the year 1000, an Amé count of Savoy, related to the emperor Otho III. It is believed that this Saxon was the chief of that race which still holds the sceptre of the Alps. This Amé was esteemed the most mild and generous of sovereigns, worthy of being the stem of a family which distinguished itself by the virtues of beneficence, without neglecting those of war.

‘Fabulous exploits are ascribed to Berold, son of Amé. The annals begin to assume some degree of verisimilitude under Humbert I. his son, a great warrior, who died about 1048. He received from his father the example of pious foundations, and transmitted it to his descendents, together with a great respect for the dogmas and practice of religion. Amadeus, eldest son of Humbert, was celebrated for his bravery and magnificence; he died without issue, and left his county to Otho his brother. More fortunate by marriage than his predecessors had been by war, he obtained (in dower with Adelaide, heiress of Susa) the duchy of Turin, the vale of Aosta, and many estates and castles on the coast of Genoa.’

The eighth volume contains the history of Venice, Tuscany, Naples, Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, &c.

The conspiracy of Venice is thus discussed:

‘Under Marco Antonio Memo, and Giovanni Bembo, (A. D. 1616) the war of the Uscocchi was renewed or continued, with atrocious excesses on the part of those banditti. It was terminated under the latter doge, by the destruction of the barks of the pirates, the ruin of their retreats, and

the dispersion of their leaders, whose names are almost forgotten. Other wars, in the territories of Mantua and Friuli, occupied the arms of the republic, and occasioned a disgust in the Spanish court, which much resembled hatred. It was restrained in the time of Nicola Donati, who was created doge in his eightieth year, and only held the dignity one month. But under his successor, Antonio Priuli, the animosity burst forth in a conspiracy, which has been rendered famous by the pen of a celebrated writer. The plot was carried on by the duke of Ossuna, viceroy of Naples for the king of Spain, and the marquis of Bedmar, ambassador from Spain to Venice. Nothing less was in agitation than the seizure of the city or the complete subversion of the government; and the measures were so well formed that only unforeseen accidents could prevent them. The subalterns were apprehended and put to death; but the two chiefs denied the proofs of the crime, though evident, and though, being committed in time of peace, it might well be termed treason. Nevertheless, the Venetians were satisfied with remitting the ambassador to the justice of his own court, by which he was not even disgraced; and, if Ossuna died in prison, it was for another crime.

This conspiracy, we think, was either invented or magnified by St. Real. The Venetian writers are silent on the subject of it: the Spaniards deny its existence; and it appears that no public executions took place. The Venetian archives, which, perhaps, are now at Vienna, might elucidate this obscure transaction.

From the history of Florence we will extract the account of the first appearance of the house of Medici.

‘ Among the families, thus agitated by discordant passions, there was one which had always distinguished itself by its moderation and strict impartiality. We mean the Medici, who had been called to Florence by the public esteem. They formerly resided in a neighbouring district, into which the Florentines occasionally went to consult them, and whence they invited them to the city in the year 1250. From that epoch the Medici attracted universal respect, both from the nobles and the people: offices, appropriated to either, were blended in this family, which observed as complete a neutrality as possible. Sometimes this neutrality was respected; at other times the Medici were obliged to declare themselves.

‘ In 1424 an unfortunate war against the duke of Milan occasioned an increase of taxes. It was wisely so contrived that the rich should bear the greater part of the burthen. With this they were displeased; while the people, warmly interested in the cause, eagerly supported the law. Those nobles who enjoyed the chief offices assembled to propose a

new rate, and to enforce the submission of the people to it. The more sagacious declared that it would be impossible to succeed, unless they had the consent of John de Medici, who was then *gonfalonier* or standard-bearer of the people, and who had not joined their assembly. It being agreed, that he should be invited, he answered the messengers that he would never consent to any measure prejudicial to the people : but, at the same time, he prevailed on the latter to meet the nobles half-way. Thus the wisdom of one man assuaged the rising tempest, which was the more dangerous, as taxes deeply affect the popular passions, and excite them to the greatest excesses.

The brief narrative of the decline and fall of the house of Medici may also interest our readers.

It was to Francis, third duke of Florence [1564], that the emperor confirmed the title of grand duke, which he had hesitated to confer on the father. Francis derived from nature a tranquil mind, fond of peace, and void of ambition or violent passions. A fair Venetian, daughter of Capello, a senator, interested his affections. History paints this passion with attendant events, which might form the intrigue of a romance. The grand duke had recourse to every mark of attention and tenderness, which could make impression on a delicate and sensitive female. He triumphed, by his assiduities, over a favourite lover, for whom she had abandoned her country ; and he gave her his hand, after the death of Jane of Austria, his wife. It is believed that Ferdinand his brother, enraged at this degrading marriage, poisoned both of them in 1588. If by this crime he ascended the throne, he expiated it, if possible, by the wisdom of his government. His son Cosmo III. succeeded him in 1609 : he was of a feeble constitution, which however did not prevent him from rendering his brief sway laudable, by his prudence, and his love and encouragement of the arts.

As if it had been decreed that every branch of science should be indebted to the Medici, natural philosophy, chemistry, and natural history, derived a splendor before unknown from Ferdinand II. who succeeded Cosmo his father in 1621. He established an academy for the cultivation of those sciences, and encouraged them with great zeal. His wife, daughter of Gaston, duke of Orleans, seconded his views in this respect ; but, not agreeing in many others, they parted, and the duchess resumed her residence in France. The grand duke then gave himself up to devotion, the excess of which is said to have occasioned his divorce. The sentence was never pronounced, though during the life of his lady he entered into holy orders,

by a special dispensation of the pope, demanded and obtained that the duke might enjoy the right of touching reliques.

‘ In regularity of manners he was not imitated by his successor, John-Gaston, in 1670. This prince led a soft and concealed life in the interior of his palace. Foreseeing that he would have no children, Spain, France, and Austria, disposed of his dominions during his life, without consulting him. They passed through different hands, according to the preponderant interests of those powers, till in 1737 they were definitively allotted to the house of Austria. In order that the state may not suffer by the absence of the sovereign, and that the consumption of the revenue may continue to invigorate the country, it is constituted an appanage for the younger branches of the imperial family.’

In the ninth volume are comprised the histories of Russia, Poland, England, Scotland (all from Buchanan at the present day!), Ireland, and America.

The recent French attempt upon Ireland led us to turn to that part of the volume. The affected or real ignorance of the French, in all ages, concerning the most trivial features of the British dominions, not to speak of statistics, laws, constitution, &c. is truly surprising, and seems irremediable.

‘ The island of Ireland presents the figure of an egg, if we except irregularities, which open a number of excellent harbours. It is about one half of the size of England: the land is very fertile, and abounds in all sorts of productions: but the pastures form its chief opulence. Nor is it deficient in minerals, particularly iron and lead. There are large lakes, fine rivers, hot and petrifying springs: the mountains are not very high, and are well wooded. Wolves are found there; but venomous creatures, it is said, die as soon as they touch this soil.

‘ The Irish are tall and robust. Their antiquaries derive them from the Spaniards, who landed in that island a thousand years before Christ, under a chief called Milesius, whence they were denominated Milesians. Other inhabitants, however, were found there; and some of them were giants. Besides the sun, moon, and stars, these tribes adored the utensils of domestic œconomy and agriculture; without doubt, in honour of those who invented them. To this worship succeeded the religion of the druids, which was probably imported by some Gauls who settled among them. Like the Scotch, they also had bards, whose poems were sung. Their marriages were performed in public, with ceremonies proper to inspire respect for that solemnity. Music was honoured; and the prize of excellence in that art was often disputed in the

public festivals, where likewise crowns were decreed to superiority in military exercises.

‘The Irish pretend that they have had annals from seven hundred years before Jesus Christ; that men, highly esteemed for their virtues, were appointed by the nation to digest those annals, which were submitted to the examination of the general council. Hence their authors enumerate, before the commencement of our æra, a series of seventy-six kings, with all their names and surnames, in genealogies too embroiled to present any facts worthy of a place in history.

‘About the year 70, while the Milesian tribe was still paramount, a civil war arose between the nobles and plebeians. The former assumed a descent from the Spanish chiefs and soldiers, who had subdued the island; and they held under a yoke of iron, as vassals and slaves, the rest of the nation, composed of artisans and labourers, descended from the first inhabitants, or from other mechanical races, which had successively established themselves in Ireland. As this mass was the most numerous, the Milesians were vanquished, and the king and nobles expelled: but the victorious mob could not agree on a form of government. After many years of discussion, the plebeians recalled the descendants of the nobles, and placed on the throne the lawful heir of the crown.’

Our proposed limits will only permit us to translate another extract, which shall be taken from the history of Canada.

‘The importance of the colony of Canada dates from the year 1668. The court of France, which had neglected it till that time, began to interest itself in that colony. Gentlemen of small fortune were sent thither, and received portions of land called *seigneuries*, so that with moderate industry they might live like men of quality. Soldiers became planters, and officers landlords. At this moment the French ardor gave a new face to the colony: habits of industry were excited by emulation. This activity soon subsided: when the French could exist with ease, they ceased to labour; and then the English colonies acquired a decided superiority.

‘A Frenchman has bequeathed to us the following comparison of the colonising nations. “In New England, and the other English possessions, is remarked an opulence of which the proprietors do not avail themselves. In New France is perceived real poverty, lurking under an appearance of easy circumstances. The English planter amasses riches in denying to himself all needless expenses. The French Canadian amply enjoys all that he acquires, and sometimes makes a parade of what he has not. The first works for his posterity; the second never thinks of his, but abandons them to the distresses in which he himself originally lived, and leaves them to

extricate themselves from it as well as they can." It is to be wished that the mixture of English parsimony, and French carelessness, may form in modern Canada a national character equidistant from both extremes. Canada was yielded to England by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, having cost France, in nine years of war, one hundred and twenty-two millions, five hundred and ninety thousand livres.

Upon the whole, this work amply compensates some faults and omissions by its general merits; and it may be recommended as an instructive and entertaining abstract of universal history. We understand, with pleasure, that a translation of it is in the press.

Le Nouveau Diable Boiteux, Tableau philosophique et moral de Paris; Memoires mis en lumiere et enrichis de Notes par le Docteur Dicaculus de Louvain. Paris. 1799.

The New Devil upon two Sticks, a philosophical and moral Picture of Paris: Memoirs edited and enriched with Notes by Doctor Dicaculus of Louvain. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

A Dedictory epistle inscribes these volumes to the manes of Le Sage. 'We may say of a book,' says the author of this work, quoting the remark of a man of talents, 'the son of such a book, as we say, of a man, the son of such a person. The fiction of the Devil * upon two Sticks opening the house-roofs of Madrid, belongs to a Spanish author named Velez de Guevara. The author of Turcaret and of Gil Blas took possession of this fable and embellished it. I in my turn borrow this picture-frame, in which we may at the end of every age—what do I say?—at the end of every year, hang up new absurdities;

' Sujets toujours traités, toujours inépuisables.

' Amusing romance, painter of manners to the life, thou whose easy pen a laughing genius seems to have guided, receive the homage of a writing with the idea of which thou hast inspired me! I represented the Graces dancing at thy

* ' This fiction appears to have been originally drawn from the cabalistic work published under the title of Vinculum Spirituum. It is there said that by this admirable book Solomon found the secret of inclosing in a bottle of black glass a million of infernal spirits, with seventy-two of their kings, of whom Belth was the first, Belial the second, and Asmodeus the third. Solomon afterwards cast the bottle into a great well at Babylon. Fortunately for the prisoners, the Babylonians, hoping to find some treasure in this well, descended into it, and broke the bottle; and the delivered demons returned to their ordinary abode. (L'Abbé d'Artigny, Mém.)

side to the sound of the folly-bells of Momus: I pursued the charming and fugitive groupe; it remained by thee. Then I opened to myself another path. Instead of connecting chapters, I sketched scenes; I thought nothing of the regularity of the picture, of the disposition of the characters or objects; I painted them just as they presented themselves. Obedient to all the caprices of my imagination, I suffered my pen to run at the will of its lively fancy; I shook off at once all the rules, or rather all the fetters of art. I employed myself neither upon the plan nor upon the style of the work, being persuaded that it would be better if every page should be the result of the sensation or the inspiration of the moment.

‘This is the faithful mirror of the moving groupe of phantoms, of feelings, of thoughts, which imagination and reflexion have exhibited in my heated brain. Regard this canvas as a collection of *arabesques*. Inimitable Le Sage! I hang my *arabesques* beneath your picture.’

After the dedication follows the “Necessary Advertisement.”

‘It is proposed in this work to attack abuses, not authority; vices and follies, not persons.’

The book commences, where Le Sage concludes, with the re-capture of the devil by Torribio the enchanter, and his reimprisonment in a bottle. The history of Torribio is then related, and the contents of his conjuring room are described with some wit and much irreligion. The fourth chapter is short and curious.

‘It shows what was in the bottle where the devil was imprisoned.’

‘Le Sage not having informed us what this bottle contained, we have made inquiry concerning it. After learned conjecture and the laborious perusal of the most esteemed Spanish commentators, we have discovered that it was a bottle of ink. The devil — in the bottle. It is in the excremental dregs that party-journalists dip their pens.’

Torribio is at last denounced to the inquisition: his house is surrounded by the officers: they enter with their holy water and break all the instruments of sorcery: in the confusion the ink-bottle is broken, and Asmodeus escapes out of the window. At no great distance, a young bachelor, a novice in the art of Blanchard and Montgolfier, had elevated a balloon, below which a little boat was balanced, wherein the voyager sat, his eyes being turned to heaven, his nose to the wind, his hand placed upon the cords. Suddenly, like a black cloud, Asmodeus descended upon the balloon, and seated himself by the side of the terrified bachelor. He gave the machine a more rapid motion; he seemed to have given it wings; the balloon rolled, the wind rose, the towns lessened in the

view of the travellers, and the Pyrenees formed an *imperceptible* point. They traversed the air with the rapidity of an arrow or of lightning. Half-recovered from his first emotion, the bachelor inquired of Asmodeus what all this could mean. "Take courage," replied his lame companion—"I am a good sort of devil. I have borrowed your machine to escape the looks of Torribio, whose piercing eyes search me every where and look through space. I will be grateful for this service; and, as I formerly recompensed don Cleofas, so I will not be ungrateful towards you."—"But where will this resistless whirlwind carry us?"—"To France." In fact, they touched upon France.—"If we proceed at this rate, we shall soon be at Paris."—"There it is—."

At the sight of Paris, the bachelor burst into a long declamation against the vices of cities—of civilisation. "Bachelor," said the devil, "do you believe that the cars of the Scythians, or the moving tents of the Arabs of the desert, are preferable?"—"Undoubtedly; and the desire frequently comes upon me, a new Volney, to journey among them. How often have I seated myself at the entrance of the tent of the hospitable Arab! How do I love to represent to myself these children of the desert, now ranged in a circle, leaning upon their lances, disputing the prize of valour or of generosity; now hurrying upon their barbed horses amidst clouds of sand, defying a sky of fire, and dispersing the timid caravans. I know that we call them robbers; but what then are our civilised nations? what are our European governments, in which, from empire to empire, from individual to individual, there exists an active, an eternal war—where the ambition of potent states erases whole kingdoms from the map, and divides them in the sight of other powers? And do not the individuals of these nations resemble their governments? Is not the most skilful villain the most respected? Is it not here that so many millions of men, when they rise in the morning, say to themselves, "How shall I get this man's money? how shall I ruin my neighbour? how shall I secure my own welfare at the expense of others? how shall I raise my family upon the ruin of other families?" And what they say, they do. Vile robbers! Now give this name to the Arab who has declared war against the misers loaded with gold, wandering in his deserts! to the Arab who is generous even towards his enemies, and who, when disarmed, practises every virtue. There is in Europe a nation which lives only by rapine, which prospers only by the ruin of the commerce of other states; which, to obtain that superiority, ravages the Indies, infests the seas, divides the continental powers, and, for its own interest, scatters among them gold, intrigues, poison, fire; a Machiavelian and Neronian government which enjoys this universal confa-

gration, which realises as far as it can the wish of Caligula, like the Lisbon ruffians who robbed, murdered, and violated during the earthquake: these, these are the robbers!!! Oh God—this nation is that of all Europe which has attained the highest perfection in civilisation and industry; that whose authors have penetrated the deepest into the abyss of human knowledge; it is the country of Bacon, of Newton, of Locke!

Such is the Frenchman's picture of England! If the following scene be drawn from life, he has satirised his own country with more effect.

‘What is this enchanted place illuminated by lustres of English glass? The refracted light sports in reflectors of gold, of emerald, and of opal: a moving cieling, where the Loves suspend garlands, sheds freshness and a shower of roses: voluptuous mirrors reflect the pictures with which a libertine pencil has peopled this temple of pleasure. Furniture of an elegant form, sofas, thrones, beds, shells, cushions of linen, of purple, of silk, enriched with pearls and diamonds, are offered to caprice: bronze, ivory, and mother of pearl, glitter on all sides. A sumptuous and delicate table is covered with exquisite and costly meats: the rarest birds and fishes are displayed in golden plates: rich wines, lacryma-christi, constantia, malmsey, tockay, shine in precious cups. A spring in the floor moves; and, from the four corners of the room, four statues start, upon the model of the dancers of Herculaneum. These automatons hold lyres and crowns; but for whom they are designed I know not; for I do not yet see any person.—Wait a little.—Delightful and distant music, which seems to exhale into the air with the perfumes of the orange flowers under which it is placed, announces the master. Two negroes, and six domestics in scarlet habits, enter with flambeaux: they cast coverings of black satin upon a bed like the car of Venus, and place under foot a carpet of Savonnerie. They leave the room; and naked girls, who have no veils but their long hair, come forward in the attitudes of the three Graces, and seat themselves upon the bed. The modern Cupid appears at last: he also is naked—

‘Reader, male or female, I will regard your decency, and will not finish the picture. “Who is this other Beaujon?” said the bachelor to the devil.—“An ex-laquais who is concerned in the bank. They say that one of his architects (he employs many) is building a palace of marble for him; for all this, which excites your wonder, already appears common to him.”—“You remind me of the freedmen of Rome; those of Paris will also soon demand the honours of a triumph. It seems that the fashion of supping with naked girls is common.

Among many similar scenes which the less magnificent apartments at a distance present to me, I distinguish by his salacity that large pale man—Ah! that legislator who has in his pocket a discourse very severe, very pure, and very strongly worded, upon the reformation of morals!

How far this sketch may resemble Parisian manners, we cannot perfectly judge. To the honour of England an English reader must think it overcharged and ridiculous.

One of the most amusing passages in the first volume is the author's sagacious account of the origin of Christianity, or (as he chooses to call it) Galileism! After gravely informing us that he has seen no authentic proof of the birth or death of the founder of Christianity, he proceeds, upon the hypothesis of his existence, to account for his actions. An obvious solution explains the mystery of his birth. His parents retire with him to Egypt, because his mother belonged to the college of vestals in the temple, and was in danger of being burned for becoming a mother. The college of vestals at Jerusalem! On returning to Judæa, the child is placed for education among the Essenians, who, as the author tells us, were very intelligent philosophers. The Romans, the Essenians, and the Sadducees, who were the thinking men—that is, the atheists—of the nation, combine to ruin the credit of the Pharisees, who were the hypocritical pretenders to religion, the *vital Jews* of the day. With this view they employ Jesus, who, being a perfect Essenian, enters into their scheme. They prepare impostors to be miraculously healed by him; the populace are delighted, and the Pharisees alarmed. The latter excite a tumult against him. Pilate, who is concerned in the scheme, wishes to save him; but the Pharisees are enraged; he dreads an insurrection, and sacrifices Jesus, "as all parties sacrifice their emissaries when they see that they cannot succeed."

Such is my opinion of a subject which I once thought deserved my greatest attention. But, notwithstanding this, I doubt whether this personage ever existed.

And the infidel is so credulous as to think this story probable! How the cause of Christianity is served by such attacks!

Another specimen may be given of infidel candour: a volume of sermons would be less instructive. The koran sometimes breathes the sweetest sensibility. The zendavesta is marked with the seal of philosophy; its precepts are pure. The religious theory of Orpheus, the golden verses of Pythagoras, the fragments of Triptolemus, bear the same character. Each of these works may furnish the most complete code of morals; and, to obtain these consoling truths, it is not necessary to remove the connexion of the most childish fables, of the most

extravagant opinions. At least these systems have formed no executioners, no inquisitors; they have not produced the pest of religious wars, that catholic malady, that leprosy of the human understanding.

It would be unjust to extract only these passages, in which the author's prejudices have rendered him absurd. We will translate a more favourable specimen from the chapter upon public instruction.

Education;—it is written at all the corners of the streets. There are four lyceums, three museums You have the societies philharmonic, polymathic, philanthropic and philotectonic, the philalethes, the theophilanthropists, the circles, the club, the boards of translation, the literary cabinets new establishments of every kind: well! all this is bad and all this is right: it is all bad from the precipitation, from the levity with which these recent edifices have been raised, by the concurrence of circumstances unfavorable to them, by the want of members and of means; because, in every thing, the first essays, or the first steps are always feeble, uncertain, tottering; because perfection is the result of long labour, of patience, and of time; because this perfection itself belongs to some privileged geniuses, and is denied to the rest of mankind. All this is good because it announces the movement given to the general mind; a movement which, in moral as well as in physical affairs, once given, is stopped no more, and organises a new world.

This leads us to a refutation of so many insipid and empty declamations upon the annihilation of knowledge and information.

"All is over (they say); every thing has degenerated; literature and the arts approach to their ruin, their torch is going out, the coming generation will be plunged in chaos." No; it will not be thus. Let us explain. You understand by information the sublime lessons which you received at college; you understand by information the knowledge of the classics; and if you have added to it some rules of oratory, if you have stolen or translated some hemistichs of Virgil or of Horace, if you have read your Port-royal logic, if you have gained a smattering of physics from Nolet, and of mathematics from Mazeas, you have reached the zenith, the *maximum*—you are a prodigy of collegiate education. What does this furnish to society? members the more dangerous, because, having learned to speak and to write, without learning to reason and to think, they mistake emptiness and chaos for sense and truth. Hence arise all the prejudices, all the errors which are diffused and believed; hence those phrases which make the spirit of the age known—“Is this work well

written?" they never ask, "is it a work of profound thought?" or "is it clear and methodical?" Thus it is that we do not inquire concerning a man, "is he virtuous?" but "is he rich?" Two such traits characterise a nation. Hence the French method of recompensing talents with words; hence all those witlings of the tribune, specious and absurd, who believe that it is sufficient to agitate the air with their vain noise, who come with an opinion as a lawyer with his papers, and who, to use the simile of an Arabian poet, resemble a drum which strikes the air with a loud sound, but is empty within. At present, the purity of information, more than its diffusion, prepares a brilliant destiny for this generation. The works of Rousseau, Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Raynal, are in every hand. Perhaps less is known; but what is known is better understood. Information is extending in depth and in surface. We are not to reckon the number of members collected in certain establishments, but the number of those who read, who acquire new information, either in the sciences, or in the particular art which they profess. This number is infinite.

Let us go through the different classes of society. Among those who have already received some instruction, I see a taste diffuse itself for sciences and the arts which embellish life: a studious multitude people our lyceums and museums; Minerva is here ornamented with the cestus of the Graces; and it should be remarked, that the presence of women contributes to banish the pedantry, the quarrels, the savage and empirical tone which our literati too much affected. Minds are becoming polished like manners. The necessity of pleasing creates atticism and urbanity. Charles, Fourcroy, Déparcieux, have in their public courses more advanced science than ten universities could have done. Garat has presented upon history the only picture philosophically complete which exists. The wind scatters many of these seeds; but there are many which take root and spring up.

Superficial minds (for Moliere has ridiculed only the mania and the excess, and every excess is blameable) have interdicted these branches of knowledge to women. And why add a moral inequality to the physical inequality of the sexes? Undoubtedly it is not necessary to make Corinnas and Sapphos of all mothers and all wives; but should we pretend to preclude them from the elegant badinage of poetry? would they hold the pen with less grace than the lyre and the pencil?—"You take up the defence of female authors!" I defend the talent and not the title. I wish that, becoming enlightened judges, they should enrich themselves with a taste and a pleasure, breathing with more delight the flowers that they have raised; that they should peruse with more interest the productions of our great models; and that this perusal forming their understand-

ing, should form their hearts. In appreciating the sentiment, we conclude by feeling it; it is the sun which colours those who seek its rays. I should particularly be cautious of censuring, as the unfeeling Boileau has done, a tender mother or an anxious wife for attending a course of physiology, or learning to watch over the health of a son, or of a husband Barbarians who insult these cares—you deserve never to receive them.

These studies, not deep, not scientific, but necessary, and in constant use, form a part of education. A woman should learn to turn a verse agreeably, or to write a sensible page, as she learns to draw a landscape, or to touch the piano-forte. I should have placed, before that which is the charm of life, that which tends to its preservation. Thus some knowledge of the healing art, a tincture of chemistry, of natural history, of botany, of rural œconomy, are not misplaced. It will be said in reply, that women are not to live always in the country, that they are not to improve their lands themselves, that they will not have occasion to prescribe and administer remedies, that physicians and surgeons may always be found at a certain distance;—what, do you esteem it nothing to save your understanding, your body and your purse, from so many fools, so many murdering quacks, to escape from the receipts of good women, from old nurses' tales, of which these *women as they should be* are daily the victims, these ignorant women, who are confined to the mere matter of producing children and educating them absurdly? It is in these relations that the moral education ought to be the same for both sexes; first, to acquire, if not *equality of rights*, at least *equality of knowledge*; in the second place, because, in perfecting their education, the education of men will be perfected. The women begin, continue, and complete, that of all our lives.

In these volumes there is little that resembles Le Sage. The Bachelor's Tale is founded upon the trite idea of secret affections, the basis of so many worthless books, from the fictions of Barruel to the equally true histories of the circulating libraries. The author is evidently a man of talents; but he seems to have mistaken their direction; his satire is clogged with too much declamation; and we therefore do not expect to see his work translated.

Annales de Chymie. Vols. XIX. XX. XXI. XXII. (Continued from Vol. XXV. New Arr. p. 509.)

THIS collection, after the 18th volume, was for three years discontinued. The necessity of making the defence of the republic, the exclusive occupation, the events of the

revolution, the business and public offices of its authors, are causes which would naturally occasion its suspension. But science has not wholly lost this time: every citizen has been a witness of the activity and success with which chemistry has been cultivated. It has created resources and measures wholly unexpected for the defence of the country. By its immediate application to the most pressing necessities of society, it has been rendered more valuable than ever to the benevolent man and true citizen.' Such is the editor's apology for the intermission; and it is well known to be true. From the moment, when 'victory had crowned the efforts of the republicans, and a well-established constitution had fixed the condition of France,' the schools, it is observed, were again opened, and this publication, with some others, re-appeared.

The objects of the society in this new career were 'to carry the torch of science into every workshop; to explain new processes; to describe arts little known or practised in France; to rectify faulty plans, and the numerous errors in various manufactures; to direct the application of many substances commonly left to perish; to caution the workman against trusting to secrets often deceitful, and to a quackery always perfidious; to establish perspicuous theories of obscure processes; to assist the uncertain progress of manufacturers; to destroy mystery and oppose fraud; in a word, to employ the most exact of sciences in the multiplication of every object of national industry.'

The first article of the 19th volume is an abstract of a work by Messrs. Vandermonde, Monge, and Berthollet, entitled 'advice to the manufacturers of iron, on the method of making steel;' and it is followed by an account of a work of M. Vandermonde, on the fabrication of swords and bayonets. These works are not very instructive to an English artist; but the directions are clear and accurate. A report concerning the different methods of extracting soda from sea-salt is more important. The first plan is to separate the muriatic acid by means of the vitriolic, and to separate the latter by chalk and charcoal. The 2d method is used by those who prepare the muriatic acid, and the soda is separated from the remaining sulphat by means of iron. In the 3d and 4th processes, charcoal and iron, and the sulphat of iron, are employed for the separation; in the 5th, litharge; the 6th appears to be the method which effects the separation of the acid in natural decompositions by means of lime; in the 7th and 8th processes, the decomposition is produced by means of barytes; in the 9th, by charcoal alone; and in another, by martial pyrites. Different methods are added in the supplement; and the whole deserves the particular attention of the practical chemist. To

render the process effectual, it is expedient that government should remit the duties on the salt employed.

The memoir by M. Pertuis, on the methods of advancing the manufacture of pot-ash in France, is very important. Its object is to enforce the practice of burning useless vegetables, for the sake of the ashes and salt, and to point out the comparative products of different plants, in this respect. The tables for this purpose are valuable. We conclude from the experiments; 1st, that shrubs and smaller vegetables produce three times, and plants five times more ashes than the trunks of forest trees; 2dly, that the substance of a tree produces fewer ashes than the branches, and these fewer than the leaves; 3dly, that plants, burned at the time of their maturity, produce more ashes than either before or after that period; 4thly, that vegetables burned, when green, produce more ashes than when they are weighed green, and burned dry.

In the next article is an abstract of the 'instruction for burning vegetables, extracting the salts, and saturating the salt-petre beds.'

The account of the mode of restoring printed paper by again reducing it to a pulp, in the mill, is incapable of abridgement. The report, on the manufacture of soap, is highly interesting; and, were it not too long, we would select the description of the processes for making soap from those oily substances which are generally supposed unfit for this purpose, and of the products.

Two long extracts from Crell's Chemical Annals of 1792 and 1793 follow; but the facts mentioned in them, though they were interesting at the time, are no longer so.

The 20th volume contains various abstracts, which, though important in themselves, are not interesting to the general reader. Of these we shall confine ourselves to the titles only. The first is on the method of refining bell-metal, in the large way; the second, on the new methods of tanning leather proposed by M. Seguin; the third, on the salt waters of Jura, and some other mountains; the fourth is an abstract of the several works, respecting the new weights and measures of the French republic; the 5th relates to the formation of salt-petre; and the 6th is a report of the merits of M. Conte's black-lead pencils, which are said to equal the English.

In the 21st volume are some interesting articles. The first is by M. Guyton, describing his *gravimeter*, the instrument for ascertaining the specific gravity of solids and fluids, with some comparative results, when tried with some other hydrometers.

M. Chaptal's observations on soap of wool, have already occurred to us. The article which follows, is a supplement,

in which, for cleaning and fulling every kind of woollen stuff, he proposes to substitute a soft soap, easily made by every workman. This soap is prepared, by immersing wool in its natural state, or the shreds of unfulled cloth, in a boiling alkaline lixivium. The subsequent process we cannot abridge. The soap smells of the wool, and gives a brownish hue to the cloth; its own colour is a brownish green.

M. Vauquelin has communicated some remarks on a disease of trees, analogous to a sanious ulcer in the human body, which attacks trees in general, planted in moist or too nutritious soils. The sanious fluid is deposited between the wood and the bark, destroying the former, and acting like combustion or putrefaction by producing an alkaline fluid. The noxious matters of two kinds, white and brown; the former consists of vegetable matter, combined with a large proportion of carbonate of pot-ash; the latter has the same alkali, with a substance resembling gums or mucilage. About four ounces and a half of the bark, thus diseased, afforded as much alkali, as fifty pounds of the wood, when burned.

Some Dutch chemists have communicated to the National Institute an account of three species of hydrocarbonate gas, procured from æther and alcohol by different processes. It was before known, that a peculiar gas, called *olefiant* from its producing oil, might be procured from a mixture of sulphuric acid and alcohol, without heat, either by alcohol or æther passing through a tube, red hot, containing flint or alumine; though, if lime or magnesia be substituted for the flint, the gas is hydrogen, and will not become olefiant by any subsequent passage through flint or alumine. The olefiant gas is neither absorbed nor altered by standing over water; and, with oxygenated muriatic acid gas, it forms an ætherial oil. When mixed with this gas in equal parts, and set on fire, it precipitates a large proportion of carbone, which appears in the form of fine lamp-black. The smaller is the proportion of the oxygenated muriatic air, the greater is the quantity of charcoal; for, when the oxygen is in too great quantity, the carbone is dissipated in fixed air. These chemists describe the olefiant gas in all its properties at some length, and wish to call it carbonated oily hydrogen. The second and third species of gas were made by distilling æther or alcohol through a tube of glass, heated to a red heat, and passed through water. These airs, by the addition of the oxygenated muriatic gas, produce neither charcoal nor oil. All the three kinds, however, differ only in the proportion of the ingredients. The first contains the greatest proportion of charcoal, that from alcohol the least; the gas, made with the æther, holds the middle rank in this respect. The Dutch chemists, however, have not explained the production of the oil, which the French

chemists suppose to arise from this circumstance, that the two last species of air contain too large a share of caloric, to admit condensation from the oxygenated muriatic air. They are evidently lighter; but, if the last addition supplies only oxygen, we do not perceive how this hypothesis facilitates the explanation. These observers are also perhaps too precipitate in concluding, that, as oil is only formed from the hydrocarbonate with oxygen, it may be made artificially from mineral bodies. *Fiat experimentum.* We can however join with them in their commendations of the Dutch chemists, who have added considerably to the stock of science.

The hyacinth of France is found by M. Guyton similar to that of Ceylon, which, according to M. Klaproth, contains the same new earth, with the jargon of the eastern island. M. Guyton found this earth in the French hyacinth, and shews that it differs from every kind of earth, hitherto discovered, so far as it has been yet examined.

M. Vauquelin inserts the analysis of peridot. It contains one-half of magnesia, and a considerable proportion of flint with about one-tenth of oxyde of iron. This solid stone therefore, which approaches the gems in hardness, is of the magnesian genus, and its strong union with flint is, in M. Vauquelin's opinion, occasioned by their having been both in a state of solution, probably by means of the carbonic acid gas.

Another subject of examination is the fossil blue smalt of Vorau in Austria, which has been taken for a natural smalt, a native Prussian blue or mountain blue. It is however neither: it owes its colour to iron, but the cause of this colour from the iron is unknown. Its other ingredients are alum and silex. The oriental lapis lazuli, analysed by M. Klaproth, is a similar stone, coloured also by iron.

Van Marum's account of the combustion of phosphorus, in what is styled a vacuum, is curious. When cotton is wound round a little cylinder of phosphorus, and the receiver exhausted, some light expands round the phosphorus, and it soon takes fire, producing, as usual, phosphoric acid. The oxygen evidently comes from the remaining air, for the flame is soon extinguished, and is renewed by the introduction of fresh air. It is remarkable that, in this rarefied air, light should first appear, and then a higher temperature be observable, until the phosphorus is kindled. Van Marum explains the appearance from the *heat* of the *light*. This however, to those who think light and heat different principles, will not be satisfactory. They will look for the heat in the cotton or the remaining oxygen, and be inclined to vary the experiment by surrounding the phosphorus with bodies possessing different capacities of heat.

M. Margueron's memoir, containing the results of the action of cold on different volatile oils, and an examination of the concretions formed in them, is curious. These concretions were not saline, but resinous, with an excess of acid, resembling rather the flowers of Benjamin than camphor, with which they have been compared.

Seguin's memoir on 'respiration and the cause of animal heat, adds nothing to our knowledge. The experiments by Fourcroy and Vauquelin on detonations by percussion, relate to the effects of a blow, or even a slight attrition, on the hyper-oxygenated muriat of pot-ash. It is well known, that, in this way, various bodies are inflamed, and these chemists have examined the effects of the detonation on a variety of these. The theory is still obscure. The shock is supposed to favour the union of oxygen with the combustible body, which instantaneously separates in the form of gas the ingredients that admit this change.

The method of tinging leather of a red or yellow colour, as practised in Turkey, is translated from the English. The secret was purchased of an Armenian by the Society of Arts.

An abstract of a memoir of Prevost, on the emanations of odorous bodies, follows. Its object is to describe the different methods of rendering these emanations sensible to the eye. The method is to place the odorous body under a small quantity of water, which is thus displaced at a sensible distance; but the criterion of odor is not our sense of smelling, for the cerumen of the ear, and the fat of wild fowl, thus appear odoriferous, though they are only so to animals whose sense of smelling is much more acute than ours.

Observations on the juices of some vegetables, and on the method in which the carbone circulates in the vegetable, and is deposited to serve for its nourishment, from a memoir of Chaptal, deserve particular attention. The subject of the author's experiments is the juice of the euphorbium. Two thirds of resin and one-third of fibrous matter, both dissolved by the help of the extractive matter, compose its fecula.

The precipitate of the juice forms, with oils, a soft saponaceous substance, though it differs considerably from common soap, in appearance and affinities. All the juices, analogous to that of the euphorbium, presented the same results. The precipitates were insoluble in water. Milk and the fibrous parts of the blood are very similar in the phenomena which they offer when mixed with different chemical bodies. These remarks explain some parts of the practice of dyers, particularly the necessity of impregnating the vegetable fibres with oil before dyeing, and of washing the substance from all adhering mucilage.

An extensive abstract of a discourse on the union of chemistry and pharmacy by Fourcroy concludes the volume; but this we have had occasion to notice. It is an elegant and instructive discourse, which we should be pleased to see in an English dress.

The first number of the 22d volume is an abstract of M. Vauquelin's memoir, on the new methods of analysing steel and iron, printed in the *Journal of Mines*. M. Lowriz' memoir, on the method of procuring fixed alkalis crystallised in a state of the greatest purity, follows. This we cannot conveniently abridge. These salts must be important objects to the chemist: when melted they form a beautiful white, and a very active caustic.

M. Klaproth, in the next memoir, examines the lepidolithe, a foliated violet-coloured stone, found in masses of granite, resembling zeolithe. It consists of flint and alumine, with a very small proportion of oxyd of iron.

The green serpentine of the higher Palatinate, so powerful as to affect the magnetic needle at the distance of twenty-two feet, is described by M. Humbolt. It has many parallel magnetic axes, which are not in the same plane, and this serpentine is not only magnetic in a mass, but in every part, in a superior degree to the greater number of real loadstones. Nothing metallic is observable in it; and the specific gravity is little more than double that of water. It contains a proportion of iron, highly oxydated, from which its power of affecting magnetised iron may arise.

The asbestoid is a mineral of Dauphiné, very rare, of a tender green, bordering on a yellow colour. Its structure is fibrous, and the flexibility of its fibres is between that of the asbestos and that of the amianthus.

Landriani describes the method of procuring cobalt quite pure. Bondt and other Dutch chemists have communicated some experiments on the action of mercury, in injuring or destroying vegetable life. The vicinity of running mercury was hurtful, and the oxyd, placed at the roots of the vegetable, fatal, except to growing seeds, which seemed to accustom themselves to its action. Oxyds of manganese, of copper, and of lead, did not seem to be injurious.

The white granites, or the leucites of volcanos, are found to contain the vegetable alkali, intimately combined. Not the slightest trace of it appears without the strictest examination, when it is separated nearly in the proportion of 20.1. This circumstance suggests many subjects of speculation. What is termed vegetable alkali, it is remarked, is not now to be considered as exclusively furnished by the vegetable kingdom: for it appears sometimes of mineral, and of very remote origin. Such inquiries are not however of suf-

sufficient importance to detain us at present; and we shall only remark, that, before they are indulged too far, mineralogists should inquire whether granites, in their native beds, are not permeable by water, which might easily introduce calcareous earth and pot-ash, without recurring to the existence of the last at a very remote æra.

La Grange's economical process, to obtain, in the large way, pure caustic alkali, and, when melted, the common caustic, cannot be understood without the plate. M. Deyeux describes the method of making nitrous æther, and shows, that, from the rapid succession of the sweet oil, the æther is generally adulterated with it, and that its superior volatility is occasioned by nitrous gas, which, in separating, generally carries off a portion of the æther.

Two memoirs on the hyacinth and the jargon of Ceylon, now known to be the same, follow. The first, by M. Haüy, relates to its external characters, and the forms of its crystals; and the second, by M. Vauquelin, is more strictly chemical. The object of the latter (for the memoir of M. Haüy will not admit analysis) is not so much to show the identity of the hyacinth of Ceylon and France, as to point out some of the properties of the new earth. 'The hyacinths' says M. Vauquelin, 'are composed of from sixty-four to sixty-six parts of zircon (the appellation of the new earth) fifty-two of flint, and two of iron. This earth is not affected by alkalis, but is dissolved by acids, forming soluble salts with some, with others insoluble salts, and not obstinately adhering to any. With ammoniacal salts, it forms triple compounds, soluble in water, precipitated by alkaline carbonates, and re-dissolved by an excess of these menstrua. On the whole, its great specific gravity, its slight adhesion to acids, with which it cannot be completely saturated, its very astringent and austere taste, its property of being precipitated by the prussiate, the hydrosulphures, and the gallic acid, seem to bring it very near the metallic oxyds.'

Dr. Beddoes' treatise on the use of factitious airs in medicine is analysed; and this article is followed by some miscellaneous observations from M. Trommsdorf. The most important remark seems to be, that the oxygenated muriatic acid has no affinity with magnesia. In his opinion, M. Giobert's process for the preparation of phosphorus does not succeed so well as that in which it was made from the decomposition of calcined bones.

M. Vauquelin gives a judicious memoir on the alum generally sold, and on the existence of potash in it, as well as on the different combinations of the alumine with sulphuric acid. He shows, that it is not the excess of acid which prevents the crystallisation of alum, but the want of potash or ammonia, the place of which, however, may be sup-

plied by sulphat of pot-ash. Many mines must naturally contain pot-ash, 'as their alum crystallises easily; so that the alum of commerce is often a triple, and sometimes even a quadruple salt. Pure alum is a very astringent salt, crystallising with much difficulty in the form of brilliant pearly laminæ.

M. Chaptal offers a comparative view of the alum of Rome, of the Levant, and of that which is prepared by art. In dyeing, they are preferable to the alum of England, though the latter is preferred in the preparation of leather. Near the close of the volume, we meet with the experiments of M. Lowitz on the artificial production of cold; but they need not debar us from an immediate conclusion of this article.

Theatre de l'Hermitage de Catherine II. Impératrice de Russie; composé par cette Princesse, par plusieurs Personnes de sa Société intime, et par quelques Ministres étrangers.

Ces Pièces ont été composées en Langue Française, et représentées par des Acteurs Français sur le Théâtre particulier de l'Imperatrice, appelé l'HERMITAGE, devant cette Princesse et sa Société intime, à la Fin de 1787, et dans l'Hiver de 1788. Paris, 1799.

The Theatre of the Hermitage of Catharine II. Empress of Russia; composed by that Princess, by many Persons of her intimate Society, and by some foreign Ministers.

These Pieces were written in the French Language, and represented by French Actors in the private Theatre of the Empress, called the Hermitage, before that Princess and her intimate Friends, at the Close of the Year 1787, and in the Winter of 1788. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

OF this collection the editor gives the following account: Catharine, returning from the Crimea in 1787, wished to have some new dramatic pieces and proverbs represented before her at the Hermitage. She engaged many of the persons who had followed her into Tartary to compose some; and, to encourage them by her example, she herself rapidly wrote some proverbs. An excellent company of comedians, among whom were the celebrated Aufrêne and Fastier, a pupil of Préville, performed these pieces before a small number of spectators. The writers were the following: the empress; the count de Cobentzel, ambassador from the emperor; L. P. Segur, minister from France; the prince de Ligne, an Austrian general; Alexander Momonof, the favourite of Catharine; the count Strogonof, a senator; Iwan Schwalof,

the great chamberlain; d'Estat, a Frenchman; and the daughter of Aufrêne. When a certain number of these pieces had been acted, Catharine ordered some copies of this collection to be printed at the Hermitage: of one of these copies we are in possession.'

The first piece in the collection is the *Busy Body*, a proverb by the empress. The proverb is a little species of drama unknown in this country. From the specimens which appear in these volumes, plot does not appear to be regarded as essential: the point lies in concluding with some adage pertinent to the piece. In this the *Busy Body* fails. The chief character is that of a man who, by his affected sagacity, and by assigning some secret motive for all the actions of the other personages, makes momentary mischief: the proverb, at the end, only refers to some of the last speeches, rather by a forced allusion.

2. *Crispin the Duenna*, a comedy, by Segur. The incident from which this piece derives its name is more comic than original. Marphurio intends to marry his ward, who loves the chevalier d'Orville. The old guardian has sent for a duenna, famous for her vigilance and severity. D'Orville's servant Crispin puts on a woman's clothes, and is received into Marphurio's house as the old Sibylla: but Marphurio's man, who had been sent to meet the duenna, returns with the news that he found her dead and had seen her buried. Crispin is then beaten and turned out of the house. The catastrophe is produced by an absurd discovery that Marphurio has a wife living, whom thirty years ago he had sold to the Turks! A good scene is produced by imposing Crispin upon him as his wife.

3. *The Rage for Proverbs*, by the Empress—without either story or point.

4. *The Jealous Man of Valencia*, by M. d'Estat—apparently borrowed from the *Padlock*. The variation is in having a lad of thirteen instead of Mungo, and making Leonora the very lady to whom her lover Don Pedro had been betrothed without having seen her: in other respects the resemblance is too strong to be accidental.

5. *The Flatterer and the Flattered*, a proverb, by the Empress.—Catharine laid a wager that she would construct a proverb upon the fable of the fox and crow; and, in consequence of that wager, this piece was written. *Æsop's* animals are here humanised. Monsieur Renard is the parasite of M. de Corbec and his wife: he flatters them, and they give him money and clothes.

6. *Gros-Jean, or the Regimania*, a proverb, by the Count de Cobenzel.—This is founded upon an anecdote which the

emprefs frequently related. She had been eager to see a foreigner who had written a good work upon commerce; and she had invited him to Moscow. The man fancied that he was called upon to govern the empire. His vanity and thoughtless boasting drew upon him some mortifications; and the Austrian ambassador availed himself of this anecdote to pay some compliments in his proverb to the new institutions of Catharine. The piece is lively; but the politician is grossly caricatured. Instead of an author whom the empress had invited to Moscow on account of the merit of his book, the ambassador has painted a self-conceited writer of worthless works.

7. Caius Marcius Coriolanus, a tragedy in five acts, in verse, by Segur.—This is a miserable play. The historical facts are perverted, and the poetry is contemptible. The consul Licinius is made the great enemy of Coriolanus because he was his rival in the love of Volumnia. Tullus attempts to murder him in the night; but Licinius saves him. The Volscian chief then kills himself; and Coriolanus resolves to go with his family far from Italy, and spend the rest of his life in lamenting his rebellion.

8. The Careless Man, a comedy by Momonof.—This, the editor tells us, would be utterly unintelligible if the reader were not apprised that the chief character is the faithful portrait of a courtier of the empress, whose follies were a continual source of pleasantry to Catharine and her court. The absurdity of this character is too gross to excite any mirth where the original is not known.

9. The Ridiculous Lover, a proverb, by the Prince de Ligne.—The Polish prince Ridiculowsky is the lover; a man of good sense wins the lady; and she concludes with the proverb, *bonne renommée vaut mieux que ceinture dorée*.

The second volume begins with the Mistakes, a comic proverb, by M. d'Estat.—A poet is writing a comedy to be acted by his servants, his friends, and himself. The widow Tender, who is to act the part of his mistress, is in love with him, and proposes to him to run away with her. To this he consents, thinking that she has only proposed an alteration in the plot of his play. His father recommends a marriage to him; and, when the son consents to it, still thinking of his play, he goes for a notary, whom the poet mistakes for a performer of that part. The mistakes are all cleared up—the poet affronts the notary, offends his mistress, and is disinherited by his father.

2. The Deaf Man and the Stammerer, a proverb, by Segur.—The stammerer comes to marry the daughter of the deaf man; they misunderstand each other, and quarrel; and the stammerer's nephew obtains the hand of the lady.

3. *The Travels of M. Bontems*, a proverb, by the Empress.—The traveller's valet tells enormous falsehoods to madame du Poid his aunt: the father enters, and discovers that his son has been squandering his fortune among gamblers.

4. *Insipidus*, a proverb, by M. de Schwalof.—Some stupid persons criticise a play which they consider as a new one; but it proves to be the *Metromanie* of Piron. Nothing can be imagined more flat and insipid than this proverb.

5. *There is no Evil without Good*; a proverb, by the Empress;—a piece which would not have succeeded on a public stage.

6. *The Elopement*, a comic proverb, by Segur.—M. d'Argentcourt, the disowned nephew of M. du Guignon, loves Angelica, the daughter of madame Grognac. The uncle is likewise desirous of marrying Angelica. Madame Grognac, though old and ugly, imagines that she is admired and beloved by the men. Under this impression, when d'Argentcourt mistakes her for Angelica, with whom he is preparing to elope, her answers confirm him in his error, and he hurries her toward the carriage. Her screams bring the household to her rescue; and M. du Guignon discovers and forgives his nephew.

7. *The Morning of the Amateur*, a proverb, by count Strogonof.—A credulous virtuoso is imposed upon by a ridiculous story of the island of Methusalem, where the inhabitants are said to grow old for one century, then grow back again for another, and die in infancy. This is the best idea in the volumes before us.

8. *The conceited Officer, or the Fool punished*, a proverb, by Mademoiselle Aufrêne.—A person who had half gained the affections of a young lady disgusts her by conceiving himself master of them, and proposing an elopement.

9. *The Thoughtless Man*, by Segur.—A satire upon indiscriminate sincerity; an error which is not perhaps so common as to need it.

10. *An Imitation of Shakspeare*, an historical representation without regard to any dramatic rules, taken from the life of Rurick; by the Empress.—This imitation of *Schakspeare*, as the empress has Russianised his name, consists merely in imitating the irregularity of his historical plays. Gostomouiss leaves the better part of his dominions to Rurick, Sineus, and Trouvor, his grandchildren. To Vadim, his grandson by a younger daughter, he assigns an inferior situation. Vadim rebels; his brethren vanquish and forgive him—and this is said to be like Shakspeare, because the scene is varied and the time hurried on at the writer's pleasure.

In the whole collection we have found no scene worthy of being translated. The empress wrote to please herself, and her

favourites wrote to please her. If the drama should ever profit by Catharine, it must be by the tragic subjects that her history affords.

Recherches sur la Géographie systématique et positive des Anciens, par M. Gosselin. (Continued from Vol. XXV. New Arr. p. 490.)

WE return with pleasure to this curious and instructive work, which has added more to our knowledge of ancient geography, than the researches of any modern author. M. Gosselin, not contented with what ancient authors have *said*, compares the different passages of their works, examines the state of the copies which remain, ascends to their own principles, and calculates after their own data. He thus corrects the ancient geographers by themselves, and, if he does not attain demonstration, it is because on such subjects demonstration is impracticable.

The memoir, which follows those formerly noticed, relates to the knowledge which the ancients had of the eastern coast of Africa, below the straits of Bab-el-mandeb. Some authors have supposed, that the ancients were acquainted with the whole of this coast; but more accurate geographers, and among them D'Anville, have thought that the limits of the ancient knowledge were Cape Delgado and the Isle of Zanzibar, in about 10° of southern latitude. The method employed to reconcile the ancient and modern geography has been to compare the different charts, and to identify the places by the curvatures of the shores. This is, however, to suppose the ancient and modern charts to be equally correct, which we cannot allow. Ptolemy, in our author's opinion, has, as usual, extended the shore, from Cape Guardafui, the ancient port and emporium of Aromata, to Port Prasum, far beyond its real limits. This M. Gosselin has proved by calculating the tables according to Ptolemy's system, and by showing the difference between the Greek and Latin texts, and the difference of both from the tables, thus again calculated. That ancient geographer mistook the latitude of Aromata; and we may also observe, that he calculated only 500 stadia, instead of 700, to a degree: he seems aware of this error, since he strongly doubts whether any navigator had passed the equinoctial. The port of Aromata, which he places in $4^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, is really in 12° ; and the 7500 stadia, which he admits to intervene between that port and Rapta—a distance supported by the itineraries, and his own computation of the rate of sailing—will bring both Rapta and Prasum within the equator. The author of the Periplus, and other writers, support this system; and Rapta is un-

doubtedly the modern Bandel-veilho; Prasum, to its south, is Cape de Brava, and the island of Menuthias that of Magadoxo. Rapta and Menuthias were the most southern ports of Azania. 'No one,' says the author of the *Periplus*, 'has penetrated beyond them; and that part of the ocean is entirely unknown. It is supposed to continue its direction westward, and, after having washed the southern coasts of Æthiopia and Libya, to join the western ocean.' In this view, Africa was supposed not to extend to the equator, which, in the opinion of the ancients, was wholly sea. This, it is said, was the idea of Crates (who lived in the reign of Alexander), of Cleanthes, of Cleomenes, of Strabo, Mela, and Macrobius.

'Hipparchus (says M. Goffelin) proposed a different system. He pretended that the ocean was divided into many separate basins, which had no communication with each other, by maintaining that the eastern coasts of Africa joined those of Asia beyond the embouchure of the Ganges. The subsequent discoveries did not destroy this system; for Hipparchus reconciled them by extending farther south the countries which in his opinion surrounded and confined the Erythrean Sea. Marinus of Tyre and Ptolemy sanctioned the same hypothesis by their writings; and it appears to have long continued, though many still supported the system of Crates. The last doctrine prevailed in the west, particularly among the Spaniards, where Mela and Isidore of Seville continued to believe in the communication between the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. It was believed also in France and Italy, in the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries; and we owe to these sentiments the attempt of prince Henry of Portugal, and the success of Vasco de Gama, who at last demonstrated a fact, contested for many centuries.'

It is still contended that the ancients were acquainted with countries farther to the south, and particularly as far as Sofala, the supposed Ophir. This was the supposition of Mr. Bruce, who supported the identity of Sofala and Ophir, and placed the former beyond the 20th degree of south latitude. When we enter on the discussion with M. Goffelin, we shall show that Ophir was not on this coast, though its situation is still to be considered as uncertain; and that the three years' voyage, which Mr. Bruce labours so much to explain, is not founded on the language of the sacred records, as he has supposed. Sofala, in support of this opinion, is said to signify any low hollowed ground, and may therefore mean in general a bay.

The last memoir, in the first volume, is an examination of the principal authorities on which it is supposed, that the

ancients had sailed round the south of Africa. In the analysis of the Grecian geography, M. Gosselin had admitted the supposition that they had doubled the Cape of Good Hope; an opinion which we opposed on decisive grounds. Farther examination has induced him to abandon his former idea; and in this memoir he analyses with sagacity the various pretensions to that discovery. In each boasted claim he detects inaccuracies and inconsistencies, which must destroy the credit of the claimant; and he clearly shows that none of the accounts can be true, since the southern point of Africa is supposed in each to be on the *north* of the equator. Yet he admits, that Africa was believed to be a peninsula, and that some old tradition remained among the priests of Ægypt, of its having been doubled. This he explains by an opinion, which is well founded, that, at some former period, previous even to the voyages of the Phœnicians, geography was better understood than by those enterprising navigators. But, if they were only the pupils of a more adventurous race of mariners, their instructors are lost in darkness; and oblivion has covered every thing but their discoveries. These attract the notice of the geographical inquirer, and form distinct and lucid spots in the midst of chaos and obscurity.

The second volume commences with an account of the geographical system of Polybius. This author, who is chiefly known as an historian, seems to have been the ablest geographer of his time. He visited the scenes rendered famous by victory, and coolly examined, on the different spots, the conduct of the conquerors and the vanquished. In these journeys, his attention was also engaged in geographical inquiries, and in a correction of the errors of the common systems. His work on this subject is lost; but some fragments of it have been collected from his historical works, from Strabo, Pliny, &c. He confuted the erroneous idea of Herodotus, that the extent of Europe was greater than that of Asia and Africa united. His geographical disquisitions are almost confined to the Mediterranean; and the chief object in this memoir, is to ascertain his real opinions with regard to the extent of that sea, and the situation and form of different places and countries. In his history, he reckons eight stadia to a mile, but, in his geographical disquisitions, eight and one-third. Freret and d'Anville have endeavoured to explain this inconsistency without success. It is probable, according to M. Gosselin, that, in the former, Polybius spoke in general terms as an historian; in the latter, more accurately as a philosopher. He seemed aware of the increase of the earth's diameter at the equator, and supposed that the torrid zone was habitable.

Marinus of Tyre was an able geographer, whose works only remain in the volume of Ptolemy. He was diligent and judi-

cious; but sometimes obscure, and occasionally contradictory. M. Gosselin has collected from Ptolemy what appears to belong exclusively to Marinus. The chart of this author extended from the Shetland Islands, to which he gave the name of Thule, to port Prasum, on the east of Africa. These, he supposed, were the limits of the known world in south and north; and his degrees of longitude were nearly those of the parallel of Rhodes, though he seems to have been aware that towards the north they gradually shortened. The sources from which he drew his northern latitudes are not known; but, in the south, they were collected from the journals of Septimius Flaccus, and Julius Maternus, who penetrated as far as Agisymba in the south of Africa, which, after some corrections, he fixed in the 24th degree of south latitude, nearly the latitude, as he supposed, of Port Prasum, ascertained by other itineraries. This latitude, though supported by some astronomical observations, is opposed by our author.

M. Gosselin proceeds to examine the system of Marinus respecting longitudes, whence so many errors have been derived.

‘It results (he says) from the table of longitudes, compared with the modern observations, that Marinus was deceived by more than four hundred and ten leagues, of twenty-five to a degree, with respect to the length of the Mediterranean; by more than eight hundred leagues, in a straight line from the Promontorium Sacrum in Spain (Cape St. Vincent) to Cape Comorin; by more than 1650 leagues in the situation of the mouths of the Ganges; and by more than 3000 leagues, or a third of the circumference of the globe, in the distance of Thinae: and every other spot has experienced a change in proportion to its distance. No geographical monument offers a mass of errors so enormous. If we compare them with the faults of Eratosthenes and Hipparchus, when the Greeks had scarcely cultivated the science, we must suppose, that at the æra of Marinus their works, and the ancient materials which they employed in constructing their charts, were lost. Yet the work of Eratosthenes is quoted a thousand years after the age of Marinus; and we can scarcely suppose that this elementary work should have escaped the researches of a man who, according to Ptolemy, had read and made extracts from every ancient writer.’

This difficulty our author attempts to solve. Marinus, he remarks, was no astronomer; and the few observations which had been made were insufficient for any extensive system of geography. Marinus, however, did not err in particular situations, but in a general extent; and, if he rested on ob-

servations, many must have been made in different parts of the world at one time, and all erroneous on the same side. The whole must therefore be resolved into the errors of his graduation. These chiefly arose from the fault of Posidonius, who supposed a degree to contain five hundred stadia, instead of seven hundred, as established by Eratosthenes.

To this first error Marinus added that of Eratosthenes and his predecessors, when they mistook the projection of the chart which they attempted to copy. We have demonstrated, that this ancient chart was projected on a plane, and that all the distances which it presented on the 36th parallel were fictitious, and too large by one-fifth—the difference which the divergency of the meridians produces in these projections. These two causes have occasioned the imperfections which we have noticed; and, as the source is known, the chart of Marinus may, with slight modifications, be brought back to the ancient basis which Eratosthenes followed, and may exhibit a degree of accuracy which could have been less expected, as it was not founded on astronomical observations. It is only necessary for this purpose, to consider the chart as a plain projection, in which the degrees of longitude must be reckoned under all the parallels supposed to consist of five hundred stadia, as if under the equator, and then reduced to degrees, consisting of seven hundred stadia each.*

The chart of Eratosthenes made the distance equal to 27,300 stadia, or 39° of seven hundred stadia, between the Strait of Gibraltar and the Iffus. In the chart of Marinus, this distance is 62° , which, at the rate of five hundred stadia to each, made 31,000 stadia. The opinions of these authors, therefore, respecting the itinerary distance, are not very different, and their variation relates only to the number of degrees. But, if the 31,000 stadia of Marinus are divided by seven hundred, to convert them into degrees equal to those of Eratosthenes, the difference will be only $5^{\circ} 17' 8''$ instead of 23° ; and the real error of Marinus will, from modern observations, be no more than $2^{\circ} 47' 8''$ in the whole length of the Mediterranean*. We are authorised to conclude, that those parts of the chart of Marinus, which Ptolemy passed without discussion, were so many fixed points, which, from want of observation, could not be altered without danger. The method, therefore, just employed, is applicable to

* This accuracy is the more surprising, as, till the commencement of the present century, the moderns did not attain so great exactness. The Sansons erred, in laying down the length of the Mediterranean, 15° , and 32° in the distance of Cape Comorin.

all the longitudes of Marinus, from the Fortunate Islands to Cape Cory, in India, where we perceive he began to substitute his own opinions for those of the geographers who had preceded him.'

On a farther and more accurate comparison of the degrees of Marinus, and their extent in stadia, M. Gosselin discovers two remarkable circumstances in this method. The first is, that, by an unaccountable error, independent of that which arose from the projection, that geographer made a degree of the equator two-sevenths smaller than a degree of the meridian, though they should have been equal, if the earth be a sphere, as the ancients supposed. Secondly, he attended only to the graduation admitted in his time for the purpose of fixing the latitudes, without any regard to the itineraries, with which they seem to have been before combined; and, with respect to the longitudes, he computed them according to the fictitious distances of this chart, without attending to the graduation adopted before his birth. The reason seems to have been, that the observations for determining the latitudes were so simple, that he would not venture upon any great change; but the longitudes of distant places might be arbitrarily altered according to any system, without danger of detection. His errors, which for so many ages confounded the geographer and his science, have contributed, when discovered, to preserve the basis of the chart which he purposed to copy, since he only multiplied the degrees, without changing the number of stadia. Indeed, in tracing his parallels, he seems to have been sensible that five hundred stadia would have multiplied the degrees too much, and extended his latitudes too far to the north.

These remarks concerning Marinus are the more important, as he is the author on whom Ptolemy rested. By assuming his principles, with a better arrangement, and a more imposing manner, the latter author gave an originality to his work, and was considered as the founder, or restorer of sound geography, a character which he did not merit by his own labour or by his accuracy.

The last memoir of the second volume relates to the Red Sea; and it is, on the whole, a finished and satisfactory essay both in an historical and a geographical view. The *Red Sea* is not its ancient name. Our author supposes, that it was given by the Greeks, from the hue thrown on the surrounding objects by the reflection of a burning sun from the red granite and porphyry of the African coast. It is not material whether the appellation is derived from this source, or from its ancient inhabitants, the posterity of Esau, as we have usually

supposed; but the probability is in favour of our author's opinion. The mountains of Syria sink at Suez, and again rise in Ægypt, skirting the shores of the sea on that side, sometimes showing the ravages of volcanic fires, but in general braving their efforts, in the unchanged state of primæval granite. The Arabian shore is flat, scorched and sandy. The sea itself is now narrower than formerly, by the accumulation of sand on the Arabian coast. The northern coast once approached nearer to the Mediterranean; and cities formerly on the Arabian shore are now at a distance from the sea.

M. Gosselin thinks that Ezion-Geber was on the western side of the Elanitic Gulf, as the inhabitants of the eastern were never conquered, and that the ships of Hiram were really built in the Red Sea. But it appears that David subdued the inhabitants; and, though the ships of Hiram were built in the Red Sea, Eupolemus expressly informs us, that they were built on the Arabian coast. The writer seems not to be acquainted with the fragments of Eupolemus preserved by Eusebius, or to have investigated very critically the language of sacred history. If he had, he would have found that a marine was actually established by David in the Red Sea for the purpose either of awing some of his new conquests, or of collecting materials for the temple, and that the fleet of this prince accompanied that of Hiram. This however does not affect our author's principal position, that Ophir, commonly written Sophir, was really in Arabia, and that the name remains at present in that of Dofir. Dofir is at present distant from the sea; but the desert has been proved to have encroached on it, though this is scarcely an objection, since we often find the name of a principal city employed for that of the harbour or coast, when really at some distance. The situation of Dofir is to the north of Loheia, in about $15^{\circ} 30'$ of north latitude. It was anciently a city of Saba—a name no longer existing, as it is absorbed in that of the Homerites (Hemiarites), by whom the Sabæans were probably conquered.

With regard to Tharsis, another disputed spot, M. Gosselin's elucidation is not equally satisfactory. He supposes (as the name in general, in the Hebrew language, imports) that Tharsis is the sea, and that the ships of Tharsis were such as were employed in maritime expeditions. This position, though plausibly supported, is perhaps not tenable. The word may indeed, in later times, have become, from an indeterminate one, an appellative; and, in the time of Ezekiel, the original signification may have been lost. Yet in every part of sacred history, where Tharsis is mentioned, some determinate spot appears to be intended, and

the LXX at least did not consider it as indefinite, since they sometimes express it by the words ἐπ' ἑσχάτης θαλάσσης. It was perhaps a *depôt* on the Abyssinian coast.

Of the Red Sea, Homer seems to have had no knowledge; and it was only from the time of Alexander, and that of Ptolemy Philadelphus, that its geography seems to have been ascertained. Eratosthenes, the librarian at Alexandria, had a tolerably accurate idea of its form, particularly of its direction eastward, below Ptolemais. Notwithstanding this general accuracy in the ancient accounts, the chart of Ptolemy is very incorrect. In it the length is too great by more than 5000 stadia, though, in general, he has preserved the latitudes of Eratosthenes. His errors appear to be of two kinds. The first is, that he has unaccountably added another coast, and incorporated it with that of the Red Sea; the second, that he or his copyists have adopted an erroneous idea of the stadium employed in the mensuration of some of the distances.

M. Gosselin examines the descriptions of the Arabian gulf by Agatharchides, written about one hundred and eighty years before the Christian æra; extracts of which were preserved by Diodorus and Photius, and by Artemidorus, some parts of whose work were collected by Strabo. He proceeds down its western coast, and reconciles the ancient narratives with the descriptions of modern travellers, particularly Bruce; for, though he discredits the account given by our traveller of the sources of the Nile, thinking the Abyssinian fountain not the true one, and believing that Bruce copied other narratives, instead of examining even this source himself, yet, with few exceptions, he trusts to his account of Upper Ægypt, and the western coast of the Arabian Gulph. When, in his attempt to reconcile the ancient and modern geography of this gulf, he arrives at the Strait of Babelmandeb, he shows, that Ptolemy added to the length of the gulf, by mistaking the southern cape of Bab-el-mandeb for Cape Guardafui, and thus enclosing the whole of that coast within the Red Sea. Yet, to reconcile the distance between Capes Dere and Guardafui, he afterwards added the same extent to the coast of Abyssinia. This conjecture is ingenious, and well supported; and our author has added, with equal propriety, some plausible reasons to explain Ptolemy's error. What relates to Adulis near Axum, which M. Gosselin contends was unknown to the Greeks, is satisfactory; and he destroys the credibility of the inscription introduced by Cosmas, which has been often quoted and seldom discussed, by showing its inconsistency and falsehood.

On the eastern coast, M. Gosselin follows the united Peripli of Agatharchides and Artemidorus. He seizes, with

his usual dexterity, the projecting points, and employs them in arranging and reconciling the rest. But it would be tedious to follow him minutely.

On the whole, though the steps of M. Goffelin are bold, and occasionally in appearance rash, those who examine his arguments and his authorities may be induced to think, that, while he seems forcibly to bend facts to his system, probability appears to reconcile them. His erudition is extensive, and he has brought his whole mass of knowledge to bear on the points in dispute: thus, while he rigorously reasons as a geographer, he loses no advantage which classical, antiquarian, or philosophical researches can bring to his aid. We have too long followed others in the same course: the torch of genius will embellish new paths, and the *limæ labor et mora*, the polish of application, will render them practicable and pleasing.

Essai sur les Antiquités du Nord, &c. Paris. 1799.

An Essay on Northern Antiquities, and on the ancient Languages of the North, by Charles Pougens, 8vo. 3s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS little work is not so important when considered in its present form, as in its future intention. The author thus expresses himself in the beginning of his preface:

‘ This essay, of which the first edition is entirely exhausted, is a fragment of my philosophical history of ancient and modern languages, which I intend to prefix to my etymological and analytical French dictionary, on which I have laboured for twenty years.’

He then gives a prospectus of his dictionary, sufficiently plausible; but so many proposals are published, for works which may never be accomplished, that we shall not dwell on this; and only wish him success, reserving our pages for what is now before us.

The present essay is not well digested; and it is communicated to the public in an unscientific form. The arrangement of it ought to have been different; and it ought to have been divided into numerical sections. But errors commonly precede truths; chaos must exist before creation; and the crudeness of this attempt may be pardoned, when we consider that it is one of the first that have been made in France to introduce some knowledge of the northern languages. Mallet had long before

clothed the northern antiquities in a French dress; but the *treasure* of Hickes, and other stores of Scandinavian philology, remained guarded, as by a dragon, from French intrusion.

We will now give a sketch of this publication, that the reader may form a general idea of its contents.

After some preliminary remarks, Pougens discusses the etymology and nature of the *Runes*. He proceeds to give some account of Hickes, and his important publications on northern literature. The history of Hjalmar, king of Biarmia, (the northern part of Russia around Archangel,) is here introduced at length, to the great discredit of our author's erudition and judgement, since it has long been known as a mere forgery to all the Scandinavian antiquaries.

In the next division of this tract, the opinions of Boxhorn, concerning the Scythian language and its derivatives, are examined; and this part is followed by a detail of the sentiments of Leibnitz respecting the ancient languages of Europe. Those of Ihre are next examined at great length, as their importance certainly merited.

The remaining pages are occupied with a catalogue of works on northern mythology, history, antiquities, and languages; which, however imperfect, may be valuable in France, where, as Pougens observes, such works rarely occur even in large libraries.

From this general view the reader will observe, that the work is rather an account of the opinions of some eminent writers, than an essay on northern antiquities, and that, instead of original research, the author has been contented with recapitulating the sentiments of others. A more appropriate title would have been, 'A short Introduction to the Study of Northern Languages and Books.'

In the wide illumination of this and the preceding century, every generation produces such an accession of wealth in every department of science and literature, that an author who sits down to treat any subject, without knowledge of the recent books and discoveries concerning it, will only bewilder himself in ancient fable and comparative ignorance. He will venerate the now neglected idols of former literary fanaticism, will tread the mazes of exploded error, and will even be haunted by the ghosts of departed forgeries. These observations are unfortunately often applicable to the work before us; but, when we see Pelloutier, in the year 1750, building on the absurdities of Cluverius, who wrote about a century before, so far as to confound the history of the Gothic and Celtic nations, we cease to wonder at any want of information in this little treatise.

We now return to some observations on the subjects discussed by Pougens.

When he assumes the position that the Runic characters were hieroglyphic or stenographic, and preceded the invention of the Greek letters, he certainly errs, and is following the fables of the last century, instead of the illumination of this. The Runic letters are a mere alphabet, like the Greek or Roman. The absurd opinions of Rudbeck and Schroder are beneath the notice even of a *tyro*; and Vieyra's *Methodus addiscendi Arabicam linguam*, printed at Dublin in 1789, is erroneously introduced. But the mistakes of Pougens, on this topic, are so numerous, that we must leave them, after remarking that his ideas of the real existence of Odin, about the commencement of the Christian æra, and his writing in Runes, are as futile as his idea that the use of the Runic letter ceased about the year 1000! In truth, we have no Runic remains that can well be antedated to the tenth century; and it is a fact that Runic inscriptions even of the fifteenth century are found in the church-yards of Scandinavia. It is surprising to find Pougens so frequently quoting the remarks and statements of fabulous and ignorant writers of the last century, instead of the recent and authentic intelligence to be found in hundreds of modern Scandinavian authors. The natural consequence of this is, that amidst an appearance of learning there is a very small portion of solid information.

The chapter concerning Hickes proceeds on better grounds, till we come to the history of Hjalmar, pretended to have been written in Runic letters about the eighth century. It is a detected and notorious forgery of the last century, imposed on the original Swedish editor Peringskiold, by a wag, and gravely reprinted by Hickes, as a venerable document! The learned Dr. Thorkelin, when he was in this country, used to relate the whole progress of the forgery; and it is believed that tracts on the subject may be found in the large collection of books on northern literature, which he procured for the king's library at Buckingham-house.

The account of Boxhorn's *Origines Gallicæ* should have preceded that of Hickes's *Thesaurus*; and the observations on Rudbeck's dreams are out of place. The writer betrays a strange unchronological confusion of ideas, in referring to authors; for example, p. 47, 'Orpheus, *Orthelius-Lexic.* Pol-lux, Vossius, the author of *Chronicon Paschale*, Rudbeck, &c.'

Whatever may be the pretensions of Pougens to learning, he has no claim to judgement. Half even of this little tract is totally irrelevant to the subject proposed. The *Titans of Leibnitz*, &c. belong to this reprobate class; and what can the author mean by introducing us, p. 59, to the wind-mills and antiquated devilry of *Messenius*? In the next page he re-

lapses into the visions of Rudbeck, instead of the proposed examination of Leibnitz!

This last properly commences at p. 65, with a list of those letters of Leibnitz which relate to the origin of nations and languages. The curious reader may consult the collection of his works by M. Dutens: he will find the ideas of Leibnitz often hasty and inaccurate. Pougens has still more embroiled those ideas by his confused mode of quotation; thus, in p. 73, he adds the authorities of Chappe and l'Eveque, recent authors, as if adduced in the podesta's answer to Leibnitz.

The account of Ihre's opinions is justly introduced with a caution against the common error of etymologists, that of referring all languages to some favourite one which they have studied; as Bochart did with regard to the Hebrew and Arabic, Pezron and others to the pretended Celtic, Geropius Becanus to the German Gothic. But when our author, p. 89, supposes that the Welsh and Armoric accord with the Gothic, he errs egregiously. That the Celtic, Irish, Welsh, and Armoric tongues, are radically different from the Gothic divisions of German, Scandinavian, English, &c. is now so universally understood, that to prove it would be a mere waste of time and labour. When Ihre derives the Celtic from the Scythian, or ancient Gothic, he falls into the above mentioned error of etymologists. Many Gothic words may indeed be found in the Celtic, as will always happen from the mixture of nations, from contiguity, and conquest; but this language is that of the most ancient inhabitants of Europe, and has a form and texture of indelible originality. The Finnish dialects are equally distinct from the Sarmatic or Slavonic; which, with the Cantabrian or Basque, complete the five grand classes of European languages, sometimes intermingled by contiguity, but in themselves as essentially different as gold is from tin, or copper from silver. The Celtic and Finnish are primitive European tongues; the Gothic and Sarmatic are from Asia; the Basque from Africa.

If Pougens, instead of a confused account of the opinions of former authors, had merely registered them in his commonplace-book, and then collated them with recent discoveries, the produce of sedulous toil and exact discrimination, he would have saved himself and his readers much fruitless labour. Ihre was overwhelmed by his own erudition, and biassed by his predilection for the Gothic: and so much more precision has been introduced into these subjects, since his time, that Pougens might as well have argued on the Cartesian system, after that of Newton was invented, as have followed the writers from whom he has chiefly borrowed. In the rapid progress of knowledge, the opinions here detailed are antiquated.

The long catalogue of books, at the end, is drawn up with little care or attention. The *Scandia Illustrata* of Messenius is twice mentioned; once, as consisting of fourteen volumes; then as of two: the latter number is right. Pinkerton's work *de Scythia et Gothia* is in English: our author seems only to have seen it quoted in a Latin publication. Instead of the illustrated edition of Saxo by Stephanus, we only find the old edition quoted; and what is still more surprising, the numerous works of Schœffer, who wrote near the close of the last century, are all given to Saxo, who lived in the twelfth! Equal ignorance is shown in enumerating the books, published from the fund of Arnas Magnæus. The *Mithridates*, the title of a book written in the sixteenth century, is given as the production of Mithridates, king of Pontus. English books are entered under French titles, &c. As to literal and numerical errors, pages would be required to enumerate them.

Upon the whole, favourable as we wish to be to an attempt for the improvement of the French in the knowledge of northern literature, we cannot in justice praise the execution of this work. We would advise Pougens, for the perfection of his intended dictionary, to study the two grand languages necessary for his design, the Celtic and Gothic, in publications more recent and luminous than those which he has yet consulted; and, above all, to habituate himself to more strict precision in his ideas, quotations, and style.

Voyage dans les Alpes, par M. de Saussure. (Continued from Vol. XXV. New Arr. p. 554.)

WE cannot follow these philosophic details through regions where innocence so securely dwelt, and where no sounds but those of cheerfulness and content disturbed the silence of nature in her rugged haunts, without feeling severely the contrast of the present situation, where the horrors of war and destruction threaten the Alpine inhabitant. But we hope, that the scourge of war will not be of long duration, and that these once halcyon regions of repose may speedily regain their tranquillity.

To go from Locarno, to Mount St. Gothard, by the Levantine valley, it was necessary for M. de Saussure to proceed northward to the extremity of Lake Major. Thence he repaired to Usogna through the vale of Belinzona, and to Giornico in the Levantine valley. It was difficult to find a place of tranquillity. It was, however, the feast of the pa-

tron; and only the sounds of merriment disturbed the naturalist, who retired to a neighbouring village in a defile between the Tefin and the mountain, where six hundred Swiss repelled 15000 Milanese.

The St. Gothard, properly so called, is the elevated hill, which separates the valley of Urseren from the Levantine vale, between the village of the hospital, on the north, and Ayrolo on the south. The whole district is mountainous, and the highest point is supposed to be on the west, called Punta della Fibia.

‘ I clearly saw (says our author) that this pic, though elevated, was not so high as those of Mont Blanc and Finsteraar. At this I was astonished; for, from the reputation of Mount St. Gothard, and the measures of M. Micheli, I expected to find some high mountains of the first order; but the point of the Fibia, though never measured very correctly, certainly appears from the model of M. Exchagnet, and other data, not to rise more than 1800 toises above the level of the sea. I afterwards indeed found, that this is not really the highest point of the mountains, referable to St. Gothard; but the Gletcherberg, on the north of the Forks, in the line that separates the Valais from the vale of Urseren, is scarcely ninety toises higher. If therefore the St. Gothard be considered as the most elevated of the Alps; if rivers rise from it, which flow in opposite directions as from a centre; and if this consideration has procured it, in ancient authors, the title of Alpes Summæ, it is probably in consequence of the general height of its plane rather than of that of any of its pics.’

In 1783 he made an excursion to the Alp of Scipscius, on the north above Ayrolo; for, having in this neighbourhood found black schorls, he expected to discover the tourmalin also. When he showed the lapidaries some crystals of this last stone, they directed him to this mountain. The supposed tourmalins were however hornblendes; but the guides, induced by a reward to examine more accurately, found the tourmalin, which is afterwards described among the minerals of Mount St. Gothard. In other respects, our author did not find this mountain very interesting. A supposed mineral water, said to contain copper, appeared to be very pure. A great part of this Alp consisted of black gneiss.

‘ On descending again (he says) to the bridge of Temola, I passed through some hollows in strata nearly vertical, of micaceous, quartz rocks, which contained nuclei of quartz: these were sometimes so much extended, as to form strata of

pure quartz, between strata of micaceous schistus. I then thought that probably these nuclei had been thus formed, by a greater facility of crystallisation, in the stony particles of which they consist. A crystal beginning in a point, is a magnet which attracts the kindred particles; and, if it is formed of more crystallisable materials, it will enlarge, and form a crystal of perhaps an inch in thickness, while the other elements, the mica for instance, collecting more slowly, will scarcely have advanced one line.'

At the hospice above Ayrolo, he found the capuchins attentive, and more disposed to entertain a due sense of his merit than they had before been. They had formerly considered his proceedings as wild and whimsical, and characterised him as a good sort of man, who had unhappily the mania of loading himself and his mules with all the stones he could find. In the plain, where this hospice stands, at about 1065 toises above the level of the sea, are small lakes, from which rivers fall in opposite directions; viz. the Tesin and the Reuss, though the principal source of the latter is the lake of Leucandro at a short distance, surrounded by craggy rocks.

He made excursions to different hills in the neighbourhood, to Fieür, Prosa, &c. The former is 1378 toises above the level of the sea, difficult of ascent, in consequence of the loose blocks of granite. The roads in this part are excellent, and are kept with great care; for the travellers are numerous. What our author adds is almost incredible, that, on an average, a thousand loaded horses pass along this road daily.

The descent from the hospice to Urseren, and the appearances of the mountains which surround the latter, are described at some length. The valley of Urseren seems to have been once covered with water.—Visiting the sources of the lower Rhine, M. de Saussure made an excursion to the lake of Oberalp. This lake occupies the whole extent of the valley, which is not indeed extensive, being scarcely a quarter of a league in length. 'The clear, tranquil, and deep waters, which fill the bottom of this verdant vale, produce a striking effect, particularly from the contrast of the detached masses of snow, on the shaded side, which occasionally reach to the water. Two little islands covered with grass, and a beautiful cascade which falls from a very high rock, contribute to adorn the scene. By the want of trees, however, it is rendered unpleasing. A small grove only is observable, opposite to Andernatt, which is preserved with care, as a defence against the avalanches.' The mountains on the south are of schist, with vertical strata; the others are of gneiss. The Rhine and the Rhone rise at two opposite ends of this

longitudinal vale, parallel to the direction of the strata of the mountains which surround it. The lake of Oberalp abounds in salmon-trout of an excellent flavour.

The passage from the valley of Urseren has been worn by the river, and is filled by it. Passengers pass through a tunnel hollowed for that purpose, called the Hole of Uri. About a quarter of a league from this tunnel is the Pont du Diable, which owes its tremendous name to its situation, between elevated and craggy rocks, and the rapidity of the torrent rather, than to its size, or the boldness of its construction.

The crystal grotto of Sand-balm is described by our author. The crystals are quartz, in veins of granite; and these veins appear to have been formed before the strata of granite were raised to their present vertical position. The grotto is very damp, the hygrometer reaching to 98.8—the point of extreme humidity.

From Gestinen to Altdorf, still in a granitic country, the Reuss is frequently passed, and once over a bridge called the Leap of the Ape. It is said, that, before the bridge existed, a monk, who was in company with a young woman, was closely pursued, when he leaped across the rock, with the lady in his arms. It is indeed a gulf; for the river is far below, and is concealed by projecting points of rock. At Amstäg, on a level with Lake Lucerne, the primitive rocks disappear, and the secondary, of a calcareous nature, follow. Our author, on this occasion, treats of the appearance of the mountains in the St. Gothard, and opposes the doctrine of M. Pini, who contends, that the granites are not stratified. A very particular description of the lithological riches of this mountainous district (incapable of abridgement) follows.

Altdorf is built at the foot of a high craggy mountain, covered with wood, which in consequence of an earthquake, in 1774, was observed to shake, and totter to its base. Fortunately, a hollow on its side received the stones and other substances detached from it by this motion, so that the town was not greatly injured.

From Fîora, our author embarked on the lake of Lucerne, for that town. Of this voyage he has only given a short account from his journal. He speaks of the curved strata of the Axenberg, a calcareous mountain. The strata are bent in the form of an S, often doubled, and sometimes in a contrary direction, and, between the bendings, there are masses of rock without any distinct stratification. When these bended strata are examined, they appear broken in their sharpest curvatures. This proves that they were not formed in their present position, for foliated or tortuous stones are never ruptured at their curvatures. At another part of the lake, is

a mountain whose strata are almost horizontal at the bottom, but curved near the top in the form of a C, the concavity of which is towards the N. N. E. On the left is a great hollow, and the strata on the inferior branch of the C are prolonged to a distance, forming a mountain with regular horizontal strata. As these rocks are calcareous, and formed by deposition, this could not be their original form, which must have been occasioned either by a force acting from below, which threw the left side on the right, or by a partial falling in (refoulement) which bent one part over the other. M. de Saussure supports the last hypothesis. Other arched strata, broken at their curvature, are observable in this neighbourhood. The strata at the basis are horizontal, then vertical, and, on the top, arched with the concavity towards the north.

‘ At three-quarters of a league from Gerisau (he says) we double a promontory at a place where the lake is confined between two points, and, on turning to the north, we face Mount Rigi. In my former journey, I was struck with the regularity of the strata of this mountain, and their violet colour. In reality, the vast strata of this colour, broken by woods, meadows, and habitations, produce a singular effect; and my curiosity was more excited, when general Pfeiffer informed me that Mount Rigi was composed of rounded flints.’

M. de Saussure contented himself with examining the base of this mountain, being assured, that the upper strata were similar. The strata were from fifty to sixty feet thick, rising against the west in angles from 15° to 20° . The whole was formed of rounded stones of a secondary nature, formed into a breccia by a calcareous paste.

‘ On examining whence this enormous quantity of secondary stones could come, I observed that the valley of Muttenthal, which commences in the canton of Glaris, and traverses that of Schweitz, from east to west, reaches to the eastern side of Mount Rigi. This valley, which is almost fourteen leagues in length, is surrounded by secondary mountains; and, as the strata of Rigi rise towards the west, and the strata of the tertiary mountains incline towards the side opposite to that from which these debris come, the origin of the contents of Mount Rigi is obvious.’

Pfeiffer's plan of these mountains is described by Mr. Coxe. One object of attention only remained—the rounded flints on the banks of the two rivers, called Emmes. The larger river falls into the Aar, the smaller into the Reufs; and the stones, on their shores, are chiefly interesting, as they point out the structure of some of the neighbouring mountains, from whose debris they are supplied. These stones

consist of a hardened stony argil, which our author calls argillolithe: it is sometimes mixed with rounded grains that give an amygdaloidal appearance. These he terms variolithes, and they are connected occasionally by trapp. This kind of paste is occasionally grey, and sometimes of a green or a violet colour. On the banks of these rivers, porphyries and calcareous stones are occasionally found, containing the impressions of organic bodies, chiefly madrepores.

The fourth journey, to the summit of Mont Blanc, is highly interesting; but we gave an account of it, with copious extracts from the philosophical parts, in our Foreign Literary intelligence, when it appeared in the *Journal de Physique*. The fifth journey, to the Col de Geant, was also noticed at some length. Of Mount Rose and Mount Cervin, the objects of the sixth and seventh journeys, we have also treated.

‘A general glance at the Alps comprised between the Tyrol and the Mediterranean,’ concludes this part of the work. M. de Saussure, when he had seen little of the Alps, thought that he comprehended the whole; and, in 1774, in a public discourse, he explained what he conceived to be some general facts, and their relations. At present, he admits, that there is nothing certain in these mountains, but their inconceivable variety.

‘Yet we shall observe, in general, that the strata commonly follow the direction of the valleys in length, and that of the longer ridges of the mountains; that these valleys and even the chains of mountains are generally directed from east to west, or from north-east to south-west. The strata of the most modern mountains are also found resting against the mass of the most ancient, except in those which are overturned, or whose planes are inclined in a direction opposite to the abrupt cliffs of the mountain.’

‘We may observe lastly, that the cliffs are more abrupt, and the valleys more deep, in the south; but from this remark Mount Cervin, Breit-Horn and the external cliff of Mount Rose, are exceptions, as they fall more easily towards the south. One fact, however, attests the sudden and violent retreat of the waters; viz. the mass of debris in the form of blocks, breccia, pudding-stones, grits and other substances, formed into mountains, or dispersed on the plains which border the chain of the Alps. We see then in the Alps the certain proof of the last scene of the grand drama of the revolutions of our globe, but we only perceive fugitive and doubtful marks of what has preceded; except the proofs of tranquil crystallisation at a more ancient æra, previous to the creation of animals; of *dépôts* and sediments in a subsequent period; and some proofs of violent commotions, as the formation of breccia and

pudding-stones, the comminution of shells, and the elevation of strata.'

A general table of 'Agenda,' or observations to be made, subservient to a theory of the earth, deserves the particular attention of the philosopher and the naturalist. It points out a series of inquiries yet requisite for the elucidation of many doubtful points, and must repress the ardour of every eager theorist, who, in his closet, aims at explaining a system for which ages of inquiry are still necessary to furnish the more immediate data. It is a striking proof of the extent of our author's views, of his profound judgment and varied acquisitions.

The plates which accompany these volumes are not executed with elegance. They are coarse etchings, but convey faithful representations of the different mountains and other objects.

Mémoires historiques et philosophiques sur Pie VI. et son Pontificat, jusqu'à sa Rétraite en Toscane; ou l'on trouve des Détails curieux sur sa Vie privée, sur ses Querelles avec les diverses Puissances de l'Europe, sur les Causes qui ont amené le Renversement du Trône Pontifical, et sur la Révolution de Rome. Paris. 1799.

Historical and philosophical Memoirs respecting Pius the Sixth and his Pontificate, to the Time of his Retreat into Tuscany; with curious Details of his private Life, his Disputes with the different Powers of Europe, the Causes of the Overthrow of the Papal Throne, and the Revolution of Rome. 2 Vols. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

THE reign of Pius the Sixth is one of the most important in the annals of the papacy, not from any distinguished talents in that pontiff, or from any grand display of those intrigues which once made Europe tremble, but from the effects which the progress of reformation visibly produced among the catholic powers, from their neglect or rather contempt of the thunders of the Vatican, and from the destruction of the pope's temporal power by the same nation which first conferred it on the pretended successors of St. Peter. The popedom lost its strength by the abolition of the order of the Jesuits. A society which directed the education of the youth of Europe was necessary to instil into tender age a reverence for the holy see, and, from its literary talents, to oppose the efforts of those vigorous minds which were from

the beginning of this century busily employed in the destruction of superstition. Dispersed through Europe, the Jesuits retained their powers of intrigue; but they had lost their general, and with him a great part of their attachment to the see of Rome. They had been the objects of envy to the regular clergy; and their expulsion led the prince and the prelates to aim at being more independent of the papal see. But, as the rulers of the church and state did not act with prudence on this occasion, the altar and the throne were endangered; and, in some countries, they were at length overturned.

John Angelo Braschi, the subject of these memoirs, was born at Cesena on the 27th of December 1717. By the successive patronage of Benedict XIV., and Clements XIII. and XIV., he was promoted to a prebend in St. Peter's church, to a bishopric, to the office of treasurer of the apostolical chamber, and to the dignity of cardinal. In these departments, he did not show any of those talents which are supposed to qualify a person for the papal throne; and, on the opening of the conclave in October 1774, there was little probability of his being a candidate, much less that he would unite a majority of votes in his favour. In the conclave the usual intrigues occurred. The court of Spain favoured Pallavicini, that of Vienna patronised Visconti, and the other courts their respective candidates, while a great party of the cardinals opposed all foreign interference. The courts were at length persuaded that Braschi would be moderate in the exercise of his power, and the zealous thought that he would not be dangerous to them. After four months of cabal, his brethren saluted him head of the church with the accustomed homage.

His accession to the papal throne was not attended with any great marks of approbation from the Roman people; and the severe pasquinade on Alexander the Sixth was applied from ill-humour rather than from a foresight of the evils impending on the church.

'Semper sub Sextis perdita Roma fuit.'

The prevailing passions of Braschi were vanity and love of magnificence, by which he exposed himself to the insatiable appetite for ridicule so prevalent in the Roman character, and to some serious complaints from the consequent derangement of the finances. If, however, his extravagance rather than his taste appeared in the erection of palaces and public buildings, if his vanity was gratified by the exposure of his armorial bearings in every part of his dominions, if he took more pains to set off the beauty of his person than became the dignity of a pope, one work which he undertook will do honour to his memory. The draining of the Pontine marshes evinced a mind solicitous for the welfare of his country. It is to be lamented that a

person who could thus act should give way to any incitements of a sordid nature: but nepotism is the natural effect of the constitution of popery; and it is not to be expected from man, that, with the means of enriching his family, he should be entirely inattentive to its interests, out of love to the public good. The short-lived power of each pope rendered this failing more prominent than in the other courts of Europe; and Braschi carried it to an excess which estranged from him the affections of his people. But the interests of a people on his temporal domains form only a small part of the cares of a pope; and, with all his magnificence, extravagance, vanity, and nepotism, Pius the Sixth might have ended his career not without some pretensions to the gratitude of his subjects, and with some applause from the church, if he had not, in his disputes with foreign powers, impaired the dignity of his station, and led the bark of St. Peter into dangerous shoals.

The difficulties which the Jesuits occasioned on Braschi's elevation to the pontificate are scarcely worthy of notice: it is remarkable only that the heretical powers of Europe were more complaisant to the court of Rome than her own children; for Russia and Prussia gave an asylum to the unfortunate remains of that order.

The treatment which Pius received from the court of Vienna was highly mortifying to papal pride; and it furnishes a striking contrast to the splendour of those times when an emperor held the stirrup of the servant of the servants of God. Maria Theresa entertained sentiments of piety and respectful attachment to the see of Rome. Her son Joseph, during the latter part of her life, was meditating grand schemes of reform, and, consulting only his own views of the public good, was not sufficiently attentive to the prejudices of the various nations under his command. The pope was acquainted with this temper of the new monarch; but, instead of softening its vehemence, he commenced the warfare by an unnecessary act of irritation. It was the custom at Rome, that, on the death of a catholic sovereign, obsequies should be performed by the pope in his own chapel. Braschi would not comply with this custom, pretending that females had no claim to the honour of such a ceremony. The imperial minister in vain represented to his holiness the consequences of such an incivility, but he received only a choleric answer; 'Let the emperor be angry or not as he pleases.' Joseph retorted by writing in his own hand on one of the dispatches that were to be sent to Rome, 'It is of little consequence to me whether the bishop of Rome behaves with politeness or rudeness.'

Eager for the adoption of schemes of reform, the emperor, by two edicts, restrained under vexatious forms the admission of papal bulls into his territories; and exempting the monastic

orders from the authority of the pope, restored them to the jurisdiction of their diocesan. In vain did the pope remonstrate against these innovations. Joseph said to the nuncio, 'I do not ask advice respecting affairs merely temporal.' On this principle he conducted himself during his whole reign. From smaller affairs he proceeded to one which threw his holiness and the sacred consistory into the utmost consternation. He requested the pope to grant him an indulgence, authorising him to nominate to all the bishoprics and benefices in Lombardy. Pius endeavoured to evade this request; but the emperor insisted with some degree of warmth on speedy acquiescence, and the pope was on the point of conceding when a fresh edict from Vienna increased his mortification. All the religious societies, not employed in the instruction of youth, in missions, or in preaching, were suppressed; and the emperor seemed determined to follow in every respect the example of Henry the Eighth of England. In this extremity, the pope resolved to go to Vienna. In vain did some of the cardinals predict the inefficacy of this journey: his holiness confided in the powers of his eloquence and in the sanctity of his character. He left Rome on the 27th of February 1782, and on the 22d of March was received by the emperor at some distance from Vienna.

He was now lodged in the imperial palace, had frequent conferences with Joseph, was received with unbounded acclamations by the populace, and, by performing in the grand ceremonies of the holy week, displayed both his person and his religion to advantage. But popular admiration was the only effect of his journey: the politics of the emperor were not to be changed; and we may judge of the sentiments of the cabinet with respect to the papal power from the conduct of the prince de Kaunitz, the prime minister. The pope expected to receive from Kaunitz the first visit; but in this respect he was disappointed. As he expressed a wish to see the minister's palace, Kaunitz appointed the time, and every preparation was made for his holiness, except that the master of the house was not at the door to receive his guest. 'The pope entered the house, and passed through several rooms. Kaunitz appeared at last in a morning dress, with an air of familiarity rather than of respect. The pope extended his hand: the minister, instead of kissing it as the pope expected, according to a custom from which no one had hitherto swerved, seized, shook, and pressed it, to the great astonishment of the pontiff and the great scandal of all the by-standers. By an affectation of complaisance, he became the Cicerone. He showed his pictures to the pope, and turned

him to the right and to the left, that he might find out the true point of view for each. For the first time, the pontiff felt himself turned and pushed about by a profane hand—he who was never approached but with an air of respectful awe, never touched but by an act of homage. With the utmost difficulty he preserved his composure through the whole of this scene, which appeared extraordinary to every one except the chief actor; and that he might not appear to notice the impropriety of the treatment which he received, he was under the necessity of expressing his acknowledgements to Kaunitz for his extreme complaisance. The grave and austere chancellor spoke to his holiness on no other subject than the fine arts. He eluded every other topic; and the pope, judging of the sovereign by the minister, could not hope to derive any benefit from his journey. He found the emperor indeed more respectful than the prince, but equally difficult to be seduced.

The emperor continued his reforms in the Milanese; and his holiness prepared for his return. They parted at a convent about a league from Vienna with all the exterior marks of regard; and an inscription on marble announced that they had in the conventual church offered up their prayers together. On the same day, the imperial commissaries informed the monks that his majesty would in future take care of their affairs; and their revenues were put under sequestration. Notwithstanding his ill success in the main object of his journey, his holiness had reason, in some respects, to be pleased with his reception. Bishops, electors, rulers of republics, all were in motion to pay their duty to the head of the church; and the attachment to the holy see seemed to be as strong as in its most triumphant days. At Rome, however, he found his own people dissatisfied. The dearth of provisions and excess of the taxes diminished much of their veneration for their holy father; and the prognostication of calamitous times damped the joy of his return. He delivered an oration in the consistory on the fruits of his journey; but he was soon after mortified by a pasquinade which appeared on his seat in chapel. ‘What Gregory the Seventh, the greatest of priests, established, Pius the Sixth, the last of priests, has destroyed.’ Sensible of this affront, he wrote under the libel an answer which ought to be engraven on the breast of every priest. ‘The kingdom of Christ is not of this world. He who distributes heavenly, does not take away temporal crowns. Let us render to Cæsar what is Cæsar’s, to God what is God’s.’

The emperor now suppressed the mendicant orders in his hereditary states, subjected all the religious orders to the authority of the bishops, assumed to himself the nomination to the bishopricks in the Milanese, styled himself ‘supreme guardian of the church and administrator of its temporal wealth,’ and

revolved in his mind the idea of breaking off all connexion with the holy see. It is probable that this would have been the end of his measures, if the resistance which he met with in the Low Countries had not been an obstacle to his progress, and if death had not cut him off before he could complete his schemes. His brother had shown similar symptoms of a reforming spirit; but the disorders of the throne lowered his idea of the necessity of ecclesiastical reform; and he began to apprehend that the authority of sovereigns and priests rested on the same basis.

During the disputes between the pope and the emperor, the grand duke, assisted by the bishop of Pistoia, had been playing the part of a reformer. He had ordered that all ecclesiastical possessions should be subjected to the same taxes with other property, fixed the age for admission into religious societies, and suppressed all the hermits who had not privileged hermitages. The bishop also introducing various innovations, the pope sent out a bull to bring back the schismatical prelate to his duty. The grand duke, offended with some expressions in this bull, demanded satisfaction from Pius, who was sufficiently troubled by the conduct of the court of Vienna. When the storm had subsided for a time, the grand duke renewed hostilities by suppressing several convents, and applying to the use of the poor the contributions which it was customary to send to Rome. A more dreadful stroke followed; for the inquisition was suppressed. The bishop, about the same time, announced a diocesan synod, to which he invited the bishops, deans, and rectors of Tuscany; and, of two hundred and twenty ecclesiastics, only five opposed his changes in the liturgy and discipline, or his opinions concerning faith, grace, predestination, and the authority of the church. Incensed at this conduct, the holy father prepared a bull of proscription against the seditious prelate; but the fear of increasing the disorder retained the thunder in his hand. The populace at one time applauded the prelate; but, at another time, a riot ensued, and his palace was plundered. This riot did not deter the duke from the prosecution of his plans. In 1788 he abolished the rights of the nuncio in his states, and left to him only the usual privileges of a temporal ambassador. All appeals to the see of Rome were forbidden on pain of banishment; and thus the primacy of the pontiff was reduced to a mere shadow. The pope and consistory were filled with dismay; and negotiations were renewed; but his tribulation in some degree ended with the death of the emperor. When Leopold quitted his Tuscan dominions, popular tumults were excited by a scarcity of provisions; the clergy regained a part of their authority; and the new grand duke, apprehensive of the danger of reform, resolved to disgrace

the bishop of Pistoia, announcing to his holiness in a respectful letter the dismissal of his undutiful son.

Vienna and Florence sufficiently occupied the attention of the holy father; but other courts were also refractory. The court of Naples had exhibited symptoms of the philosophical spirit before the election of Braschi; and the suppression of convents seemed to be a prelude to greater reforms. The principal affair which embroiled him with this court was the following. On the eve of the day of St. Peter and St. Paul, a white poney was presented in great pomp to the pope, and paid homage for the king of Naples to the see of Rome. This presentation had been interrupted; but Pius had received a poney in due form for his two first years. In the year 1777, the presentation was accompanied with the words, 'as a testimony only of the devotion of the court of Naples to St. Peter and St. Paul.' The pope replied, 'We accept the poney, as the feudal homage of the crown of Naples.' The next year, a poney appeared with the same words; and with great difficulty the court of Naples was induced to send another in the year 1780. Great reforms were now in agitation; but a reconciliation was adjusted between the two parties. The poney was sent in 1781, and the mendicant friars were reduced from 16000 to 2808. Every year in the same manner the poney was the subject of renewed alarm; the court of Naples continued the suppression of monasteries, made inroads on the property of the church for the relief of the unfortunate sufferers in Calabria, took to itself the nomination to bishopricks, and destroyed the inquisition; but the poney paid his annual visit to Rome till the year 1788. In that year no poney appeared: and Naples had withdrawn the signs of its allegiance. Protestations and remonstrances were vain; the court of Naples was deaf to all entreaties, and the holy father felt more mortification from the loss of the poney than from the more immediate attacks on the sacred rights of the church. An accommodation however took place in the next year. The pope retained some of his rights in the Neapolitan church: but the ceremony of the poney, and the vassalage of Naples, were abolished.

It is remarkable, that, till the fatal epoch of the revolution, the holy father had more reason to be contented with the behaviour of the French than with that of other catholic nations. Little happened to interrupt this harmony till the fatal necklace, which did so much injury to the royal interests in France, involved the consistory in a supposed defence of its rights. A cardinal was on the point of being punished by the temporal power. The '*inconsultissimus cardinalis de Rohan*' (so he was termed by the pope) had submitted to that power. For such an act he was suspended from all his

functions for six months. This suspension gave great offence in France; but, as the cardinal was released by the temporal authority, the affair ended in his restoration to his dignities; and peace was renewed between the two courts. This peace was followed by the terrible storm which nothing could resist. The usual negotiations of the court of Rome were of no avail: the national assembly of France destroyed the privileges of the clergy; and, though the king retained to his last moments a due reverence for the holy see, the nation was withdrawn from its yoke, and popery fell a prey to the desolating arms of infidelity.

The loss of his spiritual power in France was not the only misfortune to which the pope was subjected by the new system; it was followed by the union of his temporal territory round Avignon to the republic. This treatment rendered the pontiff a more zealous supporter of the royal confederacy than he would otherwise have been. In this cause he increased his difficulties by the impotent attempt to defend his government by force of arms. Against a triumphant republic what could avail the consecration of colours in the church of St. Peter, the cross worked in the banners, with the infallible inscription *Hoc signo vinces*, the exhortation of the monks to the volunteer defenders of their country, social order, and religion? 'Rush on to the defence of your religion; imitate your ancestors; re-conquer the world.' These efforts did not prevent the loss of the finest provinces of the ecclesiastical state.

These losses were accompanied by still greater mortifications; the sounds of liberty and equality became familiar to the Roman people; and the government was tottering to its foundation. The pope was himself obliged to have recourse to revolutionary measures, and to call upon his clergy to contribute to the defence of their country. A slight event was the pretext for taking from him the reins of government, and restoring the Romans, as it was pretended, to their ancient liberty. About the end of the year 1797, a French general was killed in a riot in the quarters of the ambassador. The riot was not, it is most probable, excited by the government, but arose from circumstances which it could not control. The ambassador insisted on passports, and quitted the Roman territory; and a French general was ordered to march to Rome. Prayers and processions being the artillery used for defence, general Berthier was not prevented from marching triumphantly into the city; and the Romans were declared a free and independent people. The cardinals fled in every direction: the pope's nephews regorged their ill-gotten property: his holiness was left without a shadow of power; and a guard of a hundred and twenty men formed both a security

for his person and a small remain of his former dignity. But his presence at Rome was soon thought dangerous. He was removed first to Sienna, then to a Carthusian convent near Florence, where, living in retirement, he bore his calamities with resignation.

Here our historian takes leaves of him; and, from the sketch which we have given of his work, our readers may form some judgement of its contents. It is written with ability; and the author was evidently well acquainted with the private life of the pope, as well as with the great events which distinguished the time of his sway. With just contempt for the delusions of popery, he does not permit it to interfere with the recital of facts; and his reflections on its fall would become the pen of a protestant. The ecclesiastical state is properly called the colossus with the feet of clay; and its destruction reminds us of the beautiful image in the book of Daniel. 'This amphibious sovereign, half man, half God, who partook of the homage paid to the throne and the altar, has disappeared perhaps for ever; and, viewing him in either relation, few will lament the loss of his power.'

Les Caractères de Théophraste d'après un Manuscrit du Vatican, contenant des Additions qui n'ont pas encore paru en France. Traduction nouvelle, avec le Texte Grec, des Notes critiques, et un Discours préliminaire sur la Vie et les Ecrits de Théophraste. Par Coray, Docteur en Médecine de la Faculté de Montpellier. Paris. 1799.

A new Translation of the Characters of Theophrastus, from a Manuscript in the Vatican, containing Additions which never before appeared in France; with the Greek Text, critical Notes, and a preliminary Discourse respecting the Life and Writings of the Author. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

THREE circumstances conspire to render Theophrastus an exceedingly difficult author to translate: 1, Those nice discriminations and almost imperceptible diversities of character, which it is not easy to exhibit with perspicuity even in a living language, and which become very obscure and all but inapprehensible in one that has so long ceased to be vernacular as the Greek: 2, The abstract terms for virtues and vices, for personal, intellectual, and moral properties and habitudes, which frequently we find no suitable or accurate representatives in another tongue; and, 3, those changing singularities of civil usages, individual and national properties, and local manners, which are not obvious to conception after the lapse of so many ages, nor admit an intelligible representation to

readers under a total dissimilarity of external circumstances. On these accounts, and indeed some others of a less important nature, an adventurer in so arduous an undertaking, as a translation of these characters into a living language, is entitled to a more than ordinary portion of candour and indulgence from his readers.

The present work is introduced by a dedication to 'the free Greeks of the Ionian Sea,' in a strain of enthusiasm, which many will consider as romantic, and some as bordering upon the ridiculous, in the present reversed condition of French politics. It is, however, no unpleasant specimen of national self-importance, and happily characterises the gay complacency of our neighbours: as such, it will not, we think, prove unacceptable to our readers.

'Une grande nation, conduite par les lumières, et marchant sur les pas de nos ancêtres, vient de briser vos fers. Elle vous offre avec la liberté tous les moyens de devenir les émules, peut-être même les rivaux des anciens Grecs. Un de ces moyens est de vous familiariser avec la connoissance de la langue de ces derniers, et de celle que parlent vos libérateurs. L'une, qu'on peut à juste titre nommer la langue des Dieux, éclaira une grande partie de l'ancien continent. L'autre, appelée la langue de la raison et de la philosophie, ne tardera point à instruire tout l'univers. En vous offrant dans ces deux langues une partie de mes foibles travaux, loin de vouloir vous flatter par une dédicace banale, mon dessein est de vous rappeler ce que vous fûtes dans les beaux jours de notre commune patrie, ce que vous pouvez redevenir pour votre propre bonheur et pour celui de nos frères, qui gémissent encore sous un sceptre de fer. Puisse votre exemple les consoler de leurs maux, en offrant à leurs yeux mouillés de larmes la perspective d'un avenir plus heureux !'

This dedication is followed by a long preliminary discourse on the life and writings of Theophrastus, of which the main fabric is the account given by Diogenes Laertius, while it contains other intelligence respecting this distinguished disciple of the great Stagyræite from ancient authors, and the memorialists of modern times. We are also furnished in this introduction with a list of the various editions of Theophrastus, and of the different translations of these characters. The original text is taken from Fisher's edition, with some slight varieties, specified in short notes. The principal commentary, which stands by itself at the end of the translation, is very copious and elaborate, and displays a considerable share of Greek learning, which will not fail to gratify and improve the students of that language.

But it is not possible to convey a complete idea of a work like this without a minuteness of criticism and a detail of specification, which would exceed the reasonable limits of such an article. We shall therefore content ourselves with giving, as a specimen of the translator's abilities, the 12th chapter, which contains the character of *unseasonableness*.

‘ J'appelle Importunité cette ignorance de l'à-propos, qui fait que nos discours ou nos actions incommodent ceux à qui nous avons affaire. L'homme importun choisit précisément le moment où quelqu'un est occupé de ses affaires, pour le consulter sur les siennes. [Au sortir d'un grand souper] il va passer la nuit chez sa maîtresse, quoiqu'il sache qu'elle a la fièvre. Il sollicite à répondre pour lui un homme qui vient d'être condamné en justice à payer pour un autre à qui il avoit servi de caution. Il se présente pour déposer dans un procès qu'on vient de juger. Il prend le temps des noces où il est invité, pour se déchaîner contre le sexe. Il invite à se promener avec lui des personnes qui viennent de faire une longue route. Il est on ne peut pas plus empressé de vous amener des acheteurs qui offrent un meilleur prix des marchandises que vous venez de vendre. Il se lève au milieu d'une assemblée et reprend une affaire à son origine, pour en instruire ceux qui la connoissent tout aussi bien que lui. Il prend le plus vif intérêt à une autre, pour des personnes qui ne s'en occupent qu'à regret & parce qu'elles n'osent s'en dédire. Si quelqu'un régale ses amis à l'occasion d'un sacrifice qu'il vient de faire, il y court pour exiger une portion de la victime. S'il arrive qu'on châtie un esclave en sa présence, ‘le mien,’ dit-il, ‘s'est pendu, il y a quelque temps, parce que je l'avois fait ainsi fouetter.’ S'il assiste à un jugement arbitral, il se comporte de manière à brouiller de nouveau les deux parties, quoiqu'elles se montrent très-disposées à terminer leur différend à l'amiable. Au milieu d'un festin il cherche à danser avec celui de tous les convives qui se sent le moins disposé à la danse.’

The learned reader will discover, on the first inspection of this sample, that diffusion is the general property of this translation—a diffusion which, in our opinion, is not always necessary in such extent to a clear perception of the original, and of course impairs its dignity and diminishes its vigour. Perhaps, in the second sentence, the meaning of *ανακοινουσαι* is needlessly restricted in the version to *pour le consulter sur les siennes*, when it means in general, *to communicate one's self*; that is, “to join in the party and conversation of others,” in any manner and upon any topic. The phrase *κεκλημεν εἰς γαμους* is not adequately represented by *le temps des noces*, as *γαμους* in this connexion does not mean simply a marriage, but a mar-

riage supper. The introduction, which our translator recommends soon after, of *διδάξω*, instead of the received reading *διδασκω*, we deem unnecessary.

Upon the whole, the mere French reader, or the English reader acquainted with that language, to whom, from an ignorance of the Greek and Latin tongues, the ample annotations of Casaubon, Dupont, and others, on these much admired and much criticised characters, are inaccessible, will find this volume, in its preliminary dissertation, the version itself, the subjoined criticisms, and the annexed commentary, both an agreeable and instructive performance; and as such we recommend it to notice. At the same time, it is an act of justice to our country, which is suggested to our minds by the general ignorance of the book in question, to declare, that an English work, constructed on the model of these Grecian characters, is fully equal in all points of merit, as we think, to the original: we mean Earle's *Microcosmographia*; of which a new edition was published not many years ago, and which every lover of quaint description, and a sagacious developement of human character, will be eager to possess.

Nosographie Philosophique, ou la Methode d'Analyse appliquée a la Medecine, par Ph. Pinel, Professeur de l'Ecole de Medecine de Paris. Paris. 1798.

Philosophical Nosology, or an Application of the Analytic Method of Reasoning to the Medical Science, by Professor Pinel. 2 Vols. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

M. Pinel's eagerness and confidence lead him into inconsistencies; yet we perceive in his work the promise of a richer harvest. His warm enthusiasm in favour of some excellent, though neglected authors, particularly Stahl; his eagerness to rest every disputed circumstance on the result of careful observation; and, above all, the necessity which he occasionally points out, under the auspices of the Stahlian school, of waiting where no particular urgent symptoms or fatal tendencies appear; entitle him to our praise. To speak of the Boerhaavian school, at this time, is a task of some delicacy. The zeal of M. Pinel carries him too far; for many of those who enlisted under the banners of the Leyden professor deserve high respect, while his confined mechanical eclectic system for many years cramped the human mind, and essentially impeded the progress of medicine as a science. It

will excite a smile to observe, after reading the bitter philippic against the humoral pathology, that it is almost copied in many parts of our author's system. From these reflections, suggested by M. Pinel's introduction, we shall proceed to the work itself.

As we have at different times paid so much attention to nosology, our readers must believe that we think it highly useful. We are indeed fully convinced of its utility, and are persuaded that, in the arrangement of diseases, no difficulties can arise which do not prove the deficiency of observation, and show to what point our inquiries should be directed. One point essential to the improvement of nosology may here be mentioned, because it is so much neglected by our author—that is, to consider the disease as consisting of a concurrence of symptoms, and to suffer no circumstance to enter the title or definition, that is not an object of the senses, or to be learned from a common observer. If this be neglected, the system will be as uncertain as the theory on which it rests, and the distinction difficult, unless the physician should hourly attend.

In his examination of fevers, M. Pinel speaks of six primitive forms of fever, which he arranges into so many orders. If he had begun at the right end of his system, they would, in many instances, not have formed even genera.

His first order is the Angio-tenic fever (inflammatory); 2. meningo-gastric (bilious); 3. adeno-meningic (pituitous); 4. adynamic (putrid); 5. ataxic (malignant); 6. adeno-nervous (pestilential). The first order contains one genus, the common inflammatory fever. From the remarks on the treatment of this fever, we will translate a passage, as a specimen of what we have styled M. Pinel's eagerness and his general manner.

‘ We must choose our principles of the treatment of inflammatory fever; and the choice is not difficult to a man of sound judgment. On one side, Hippocrates, Stahl, and other accurate observers, whose views are extensive and whose directions are profound, consider only, in the progress of this fever, a free and gradual exertion of the laws of the animal œconomy for the preservation of the individual. They attend to this progress with care, and are contented with calming, in particular circumstances, every dangerous symptom, such as very great heat, violent head-ach, &c. On the other hand, physicians of high credit, but full of prejudice, or rather an innumerable crowd, confined to the stupid ideas of obstruction, morbid lentor, &c. think that they have every thing to contend with in this fever, as if nature were inert, or constantly erroneous. From this cause we find copious and repeated bleeding recommended, as if the blood were a principle

of destruction, which must be taken away. Brown, in these later times, born with a spirit of opposition, eager to be the head of a sect, and to decry the resources of nature with a view of enhancing his own, or ready to mutilate the history of diseases to adapt them to his own system, connects inflammatory fever with phrensy, and, neglecting the essential characters of each, considers them only in relation to the excess of the vital powers. According to him, the proper plan is, to lessen this excess, to repeat the purgatives, to draw a great quantity of blood, to cool the patient within by cold drinks, and without by free exposure to the air, as if the cure could be effected by these extraordinary measures. If Frank, a zealous supporter of the Brunonian system, had only simplified the treatment of inflammatory fevers, boldly vindicated the rights of nature, and avoided every exaggeration, would he not have given a more striking proof of an enlightened genius and a solid judgment? On the contrary, he blindly embraces all the principles of the Scotch physician, displays the same inattention to, or affected contempt of, the Hippocratic plan, the same negligence in the histories of diseases, the same blind confidence in measures, often trifling and useless, and sometimes dangerous by their excess. In other respects, this is a complete reverse of the methods pursued in every part of natural history, where we rise from particular facts to general views; and we see, in Frank's work (*Ratio Instituti Clinici Ticinienfis An. 1797*), observations made in a clinical infirmary, yielding to a spirit of system, and forced to crouch to arbitrary hypotheses.

We may here observe, that, to counteract dangerous symptoms, frequent bleeding and laxatives are required; and the Brunonian would say that he means no more. On the other hand, to wait the progressive steps of nature, designed to preserve the individual, would frequently be to permit him to sink without an effort. As usual, truth lies between the extremes.

The second order contains three genera—the continued, the remittent and the intermittent, or the mild tertian. It is properly observed, that our knowledge of these must be gained from an examination of the history of epidemics. But had the author examined farther, he would have found the bilious evacuations not a constant symptom, and that, so far as relates to the cure, he had joined fevers of a dissimilar nature.

In the third order, the association is arbitrary, for the pituitous fever, as described by Wagler, Sarcone, and some others, is evidently a typhus, with mucous evacuations of a dysenteric nature. But though a genus of pituitous fever be

admitted, there is little propriety of adding in the same order the quotidian and quartan intermittents.

The fourth order contains the continued and remittent adynamics; but perhaps these should not have been separated from the malignant fevers, since *plus vel minus non mutat speciem.* The genera of the fifth order are the sporadic ataxic fever, the contagious, the slow nervous fever, the malignant remittent. The three first genera scarcely differ, and in a strict nosological view would be scarcely varieties; for no axiom is more indisputable than this, that every nosological refinement *not subservient to the distinction of diseases* is useless. The sixth order has only one genus—the plague of the Levant.

In a survey of the first class, we find nothing that we can highly commend. The arrangement is often injudicious, the genera are not correctly established, and the definitions are of little utility in the diagnosis.

The second class consists of the phlegmasiæ; and in this our author falls into the error of Sauvages and other nosologists in distinguishing the orders according to the parts of the viscera affected; a distinction not always well founded, and, when just, difficult to be ascertained by symptoms. In the liver only can this distinction be accurately traced; but the parenchymatous affection of the liver is a chronic disease.

The first order of this class comprehends the inflammations of mucous membranes. The genera are the simple catarrh, simple dysentery, aphthæ, catarrhus vesicæ, gonorrhœa, leucorrhœa, and ophthalmia. The last genus is objectionable, for the conjunctiva is not a mucous membrane: it should have been confined to the inflammation of the eye-lids. In other respects this order is well arranged.

The second order contains the inflammations of transparent membranes. These are, in our author's system, phrensy, pleurisy, inflammation of the stomach, intestines, and vesica urinaria.

The inflammations of the cellular texture, the glands, and parenchyma of the viscera, the subjects of the third order, are phlegmon, peripneumony, hepatitis and nephritis.

The fourth order consists of inflammations of the muscles, and one genus only is inserted, viz. rheumatism; for the author shrewdly remarks, that angina, which is considered as the other genus, might, with equal propriety, have been added to the genera of any other order.

The fifth order contains the cutaneous inflammations, and the genera are erysipelas, small-pox, measles, and anthrax. The nature of the attendant fever is carefully investigated under each genus.

‘Active hæmorrhages’ form the third class: these are the hæmorrhagiæ of Dr. Cullen, an author against whom M. Pinel seems prejudiced, though the best parts of his system are copied from the nosology of that physician. In this place Dr. Cullen deserved more credit, since he first introduced, in this country, the Stahlian system of hæmorrhagic efforts. M. Pinel, in the introduction to this class, gives the outline of the Stahlian doctrine; adding, in support of it, some experiments proving the irritability of arteries, which Haller denied. The following remarks deserve attention.

‘The justice due to the Stahlian school on this subject must not induce us to conceal that its disciples have too far extended these principles, by considering hæmorrhages, in every instance, as salutary effects of nature for the discharge of an inconvenient load of blood. Thus Juncker inserts this direct intention of the vital principle, in his definition of vomiting of blood, which is often the result of violent passions, suppression of the catamenia, hæmorrhoids, &c. and highly dangerous. Is not the morbus niger of Hippocrates, Hoffman, Juncker, Lorry, &c. a kind of hæmatemesis? Observations much more accurate on this disease are inserted by Dr. Brieude, in the collection published by the Society of Health, in 1793; and it appears to belong to old age rather than to any other period of life, perhaps without any evident symptom to distinguish it, when a salutary crisis, from the circumstances in which it soon becomes fatal. A man of the age of thirty-six years, possessing an acute sensibility, suffered great pain of mind, and, to amuse himself, retired into the country, where he bathed and lived on whey. After the sixth bathing he fainted and vomited a considerable quantity of coagulated, black and fœtid blood. The faintings continued on the following day, with two or three stools similar to the vomits. When the patient had been conveyed to Paris, Dr. Brieude found his pulse scarcely sensible, though very frequent, and his countenance pale and agitated. He was ordered to take acid and mucilaginous drinks, with Spanish wine, and laxative clysters. He still occasionally vomited thick black blood. On the fourth day his stools became green and yellow. He took saline purgatives in small doses, and recovered on the twenty-first day. For six months he lived on farinaceous and mucilaginous vegetables, and he had no relapse.’

The hæmorrhages of the first order are those which are common to both sexes. The genera of this order are hæmoptysis, hæmatemesis, hæmaturia, and excessive flow of the hæmorrhoids. The treatment is on the Stahlian plan. The second order contains the whole doctrine of catamenia;

and, what may appear strange in an order of *hæmorrhages*, the *defect* and the *cessation* of the discharge are equally considered.

The neuroses constitute the fourth class. We could prove, if it were necessary, that associations so extensive and so general are of little importance, and serve only as pretences to a complete scientific arrangement, which, in execution, will be found illusory. To the first order of neuroses belong the *vesaniæ*, comprehending *hypochondriasis*, *melancholy*, *madness* and *hysteria*. The principal seat of these disorders is the *hypochondriac* region, according to M. Pinel, and he supports this opinion with numerous facts and judicious reasoning. His observations on *mania* are particularly valuable, and we should have enlarged on it, if he had not promised a complete treatise on the subject. We will quote a short passage on this topic.

‘ Reflection and reasoning are visibly injured or destroyed in the greater part of the paroxysms of *mania* ; but cases may be mentioned where the functions exist in all their energy, or are immediately restored when any object fixes the attention of the maniac, in the midst of his most chimerical wanderings. I once engaged a man of a highly cultivated understanding to write a letter at a time when he was talking most wildly and absurdly ; yet this letter, which I still preserve, is sensible and judicious. A goldsmith, whose extravagance proceeded so far that he supposed his head changed, indulged the chimæra of the perpetual motion. He procured his tools, and worked with great perseverance. It may be concluded, that he did not succeed in the chief object of his wish ; but he produced some ingenious machines, the necessary consequences of the most profound combinations.’

To this may be added the acting of Reddish, while he was under the influence of his disease, so far as to suppose that he was to perform the part of *Romeo*, instead of *Posthumus*, which was allotted to him. He however began the latter, and performed it well.

The second order contains the *spasmi*. These are *epilepsy*, *hydrophobia*, *convulsions*, and *tetanus*. To introduce *hydrophobia* into this order is an error less excusable in our author, as the French practitioners have shown, that the spasm of the pharynx is not an essential symptom of the disease.—The third order comprehends ‘ anomalies of the nervous functions.’ Of the discussions to which this association gives occasion, the most interesting part is a case of high nervous excitement and irregularity. The genera are, in a great degree, independent of each other, and are classed according to the

parts affected.—In the fourth order are comatose affections, viz. apoplexy, catalepsy, &c.

The fifth class contains the diseases of the lymphatic system, and cutaneous diseases form the first order. The arguments, however, adduced to bring cutaneous diseases under this class, are perhaps not convincing; but the new descriptions of the skin by M. Fragonard, inserted in this volume, are interesting; and the general view of cutaneous diseases, though a rapid glance, is comprehensive and masterly. M. Pinel contends particularly, on the authority of Mascagni, that the inhalation of the skin, which Dr. Currie has lately denied, is a common, and a generally constant function of this organ. The genera are leprous affections, scurvy, tinea, &c. Tinea, our author thinks, is not wholly confined to the hairy scalp, as other eruptions sometimes accompany it; but such complications are not common, except in the dirtiest habits, and the disease occurs notwithstanding the greatest care. We have seen it in the bulbs of the hair of the beard only. Diseases of the lymphatic glands compose the second order, and the genera are scrofula, tabes mesenterica, phthisis, &c.

Of the third order, entitled dropries, the genera are hydrocephalus, hydrothorax, ascites, and anasarca. In relating the causes of dropsy, our author quotes, with seeming approbation, the prejudiced remark of Stahl, that the frequency of the disease, in this country, is owing to the common and imprudent use of bark. This cause exists no longer; yet dropries continue their destructive ravages.

The last is an indeterminate class, which would not be required in nosography arranged according to symptoms. It contains the jaundice of new-born children, diabetes, worms of the intestines, bites of insects and serpents.

The work concludes with two useful essays on the method of studying. In one M. Pinel strongly recommends the Hippocratic school. In the other are rules for observing the progress of an acute and of a chronic disease, worthy of the attention of younger practitioners.

On the whole, this work deserves our commendation. As a system of nosology, it is imperfect and erroneous. As a practical system, it is certainly incomplete, but contains just and sagacious views in many parts of the medical science. We may add, that to enforce an attention to the writings of Stahl is a merit which will cover many errors.

Recherches sur les Origines Celtiques, principalement sur celles du Bugey, considéré comme Berceau du Delta Celtique. Par Pierre J. J. Bacon-Tacon. Paris. 1798.

Researches into Celtic Origins, chiefly those of Bugey, considered as the Cradle of the Celtic Delta; by P. J. J. Bacon-Tacon. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

IN the course of our literary labours, we have seldom met with a more remarkable sacrifice to self-importance than the present work. It happened that P. J. J. Bacon-Tacon was born in the obscure district of Bugey, in the department of Ain; and it follows that Bugey must become an important province, because it has given birth to so celebrated a man!

Ignorance alone could give origin to such an idea; and the work is such as might have been expected from the writer. Idle assertions, without proofs or authorities, are the weapons wielded by one who merely aspires to the title of *erudit*: and that cheap science, Celtic etymology, forms his sole resource in building a thousand pages upon nothing.

In a long introduction, minutely divided into numbered paragraphs, like the rest of the book, as if it were a legal code, to be quoted with general reverence, our author begins with God, the eternity of the universe, the great antiquity of the terrestrial globe in its present state, and the prodigious antiquity of the civilisation of mankind. In the name of patience, what concern has all this with Bugey, or with citizen Bacon-Tacon's grandmother?

His first chapter is occupied with what he calls the *primogeniture* of Bugey. He tells us that the people of Bresse pretend to be ancestors of the Bugeyans; but that a babe cannot be older than its nurse; which, we are inclined to think, is one of the few valuable truths revealed to P. Bacon-Tacon. This opinion excites his warmest opposition: he calls it a *delirium*, and says very harsh things of Bresse, and its people; whereas Niherme (which he interprets the new Hermes), and other places in Bugey, have 'a patriarchal antiquity.' Bugey is a name as old as Brennus, whereas Bourg-en-Bresse is of yesterday; for, in a point of such infinite moment, who can doubt the *ipse dixit* of such a wonderful writer?

Of his etymological dreams, which occupy the greater part of his book, we will exhibit one specimen. Speaking of Mount Jura, he says, 'this word Y-ur-a, of which Cæsar has made *Jura*, in order to bend it to the Latin idiom, signifies *evidently* HERE IS THE FIRST FIRE. This same word, otherwise decomposed, and forming as I suppose *ioura*, signifies the ship of Io or Isis, who is the same with Vesta.'

Of all branches of antiquarian science etymology is the most uncertain, and the most liable to abuse. We have Bacon-

Tacons in our own country; and we sincerely wish that no persons were allowed to practise etymology, except ladies who have reached a certain age.

We need not detain the reader with an account of the various peals and changes which our author has rung upon his etymological bells. His vain imagination has led him to suppose that he can interest many of the most eminent French families, and living persons, in his labours, by giving up the latter half of his volume to ridiculous etymologies of their names, which he proves to be Bugesian-Celtic in a very clear and exact manner!

The second volume commences with letters of Bacon-Tacon and his friends, which are printed with ludicrous self-consequence, and might form an addition to the *Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum*. Plates are introduced of a forged Otho, in large brass, and a pretended Dido and Hannibal, and other supposed pieces of antiquity, from the grand cabinet of Bacon-Tacon. We have even a head of Alcibiades, the sculpture of Socrates! So unable is our author to distinguish even the grossest forgeries.

In the second volume appears an eulogium on La-Tour d'Auvergne, another dreamer of dreams.

Un sot trouve toujours un plus sot qui l'admire.

But Bacon-Tacon must differ from La-Tour d'Auvergne, because the latter, he says, 'by a blind love for Bretagne, where he was born, endeavours to derive almost all the nations of the globe from Bretagne; a glory which I maintain belongs to Bugey.' Thus, while one milks a bull, the other holds the pail.

The latter part of the second volume is filled with risible derivations of French proper names from Bugesian Celtic, a language which we shall not be able to avoid recollecting when we see a goose.

Nouveaux Principes de Géologie, comparés et opposés à ceux des Philosophes anciens et modernes, notamment de J. C. La Metherie, qui les a tous analysés dans sa Théorie de la Terre, ou Manière plus simple d'observer & d'expliquer l'un par l'autre les principaux Faits naturels; avec un Abregé de la Géologie nouvelle; par P. Bertrand, Inspecteur-general des Ponts & des Chaussées. Paris. 1799.

New Principles of Geology, compared and opposed to those of ancient and modern Philosophers, particularly J. C. La Metherie, by P. Bertrand, Inspector-general of Bridges and Highways. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

THE system of M. la Metherie is the great object of M. Bertrand's attack. That naturalist, who, having connected

and arranged the various arguments and facts, in favour of what is called the Neptunian system, concluded that the different forms of matter were produced by crystallisation, has not escaped the animadversions of the volcanists, the remains of the school of Buffon. M. Bertrand, however, is not a formidable antagonist: he follows La Metherie through the different parts of his volume, interposing arguments and censures not always just. In reality, that author carried a doctrine, on the whole perhaps the true one, to an excess, which often arises from views too strictly systematic. The Neptunist is, on the one hand, seduced by the appearance of granites, and the volcanist by scorix and lavas; for few except M. Bertrand will now follow Buffon, and suppose quartz, in its various forms, to be the effect of fire. On the contrary, the hardest gems afford proofs of a rapid and intimate union by crystallisation, as much as the mass of crystals observable in granite.

As it is not our present object to engage in this controversy, we shall merely give some specimens of M. Bertrand's opinions, and of his geological system.

‘ I am convinced (he says) that, by some extraordinary cause, the globe has experienced, since its formation, if not a combustion, a considerable degree of heat with moisture, perhaps equal to that of boiling water. I think I perceive the effects of this heat, 1st, in the state of the ancient calcareous rocks, seemingly hardened by heat, divided in strata of different qualities; 2ndly, in the almost general dissolution of their shells; 3dly, in the sulphureous decomposition of marine animals; 4thly, in the crystallisation of the sulphur into pyrites or flint; 5thly, in the general compression, cementation, and petrification of these earths; 6thly, in the gypsum, the spat, the quartz, and other saline bodies, which are only the lixivia of the calcareous or vitreous earths; 7thly, in all mineralisations and natural amalgams, which can only be the effects of very great heat.’

‘ What then is the nature of the sun? I think I have answered this question, according to every rule of analogy and even philosophy: these rules oblige me to believe, that the nature of the sun is the same with that of the planets, and that they were produced from the same mass, by the effect of one impulse, since they all turn in the same direction. This mass, or this common matter, is water, since La Metherie admits, with other able geologists, that this was the original matter of our globe. But, coming from profound darkness, from continued and absolute rest, this water could then be only ice. Under this solid form, it may have been divided, and its

fragments may have received their different impulses, which, by imparting light, heat, and life, liquefied these fragments, and subjected them to the sphæroidal form. The principal mass, which experienced only a very slight shock, remained to command and to recall the scattered parts, which, at their return, continued to surround the moving focus. I thus obviate the objection which La Metherie makes to a similar hypothesis, by saying that all the planets should fall into the sun, from which they were separated, since it was a point in their orbit; and it is in this way that I explain the displacing, or the progressive motion discovered in suns, particularly in our sun. But, in other respects, this objection, which every one repeats, falls of itself; for, if the sun remains immovable, after the first projection, all projectiles must fall towards it. This, however, cannot be the case, if they describe any orbit, but can only happen when they fall in the same straight line through which they rose.

‘May not this focus of all the orbits, on which so many globes rested and rolled, the centre and the source of all the powers of the universe, the attractive, luminous, electric, and magnetic fluids, so subtle and so rapid as to confound the imagination—may not this central point become brilliant and radiant by a fire purely æthereal? Can it be said, that light only can exist by means of material fire?’

‘This *radiant water* of the sun, certainly warm, perhaps boiling...’ But we will not fill our pages with speculations so crude, and positions so absurd and gratuitous.

The author’s abridgment of his geological system occurs in the 40th chapter. We trust that we shall not offend the ‘inspector-general,’ if we hastily pass over some parts, which might require much exertion of mind, but which are not very important to the general doctrine.

Motion, heat, light, and life, he observes, escape our comprehension; they appear, at first, to be essential parts of the natural world, but are found only to be transitory qualities. Water is, in his opinion, the original matter; but the only spontaneous innate power is gravitation, which, as in its effects it obeys the laws of mechanics, is probably in its nature mechanical. The projection of a planet is of the same kind, whether produced by a comet or any other cause; and the impulse which produced this motion is thought to be a single one, as it has not deranged the situation of the different parts of the earth, with respect to each other. The origin of our solar system is therefore only the revival of some old world, which, long bound ‘in icy chains,’ differs from its original, by the decompositions which have taken place in conse-

quence of the cold, though some of the former ingredients may have resisted this decomposition.

From the water produced in consequence of the liquefaction of this ice, various mineral substances arise. The first is, the calcareous earth, 'by a fecundation to us incomprehensible,' which, sinking to the bottom, depresses the ocean. Some other 'celestial prodigy, the cause of which will remain equally unknown,' first raised the continents, peopled them with animals, and adorned them with vegetables; but these accumulated so rapidly that fermentation and putrefaction were the consequences; and by some meteorological 'phænonon,' deflagration followed, with its usual effects, volcanos and earthquakes, which destroyed the original and horizontal situation of the strata, and produced the confusion that we now see. In this state, the marine strata, becoming ductile and yielding, slide on each other, form schistous stones, and adapt them for infiltrations of a mineral nature. The cinders afford lixivia and vitreous stalactites; of these the principal is quartz, which was only at first a fluid pot-ash. From this also the true and foliated granites are supposed to have been formed; and the same lixivium, penetrating the other stones, has given not only a harder quartzose nature to the schisti, but by different combinations the various appearance and properties of every kind of earth.

The whole of the animal and vegetable substances of the first continents were not however reduced to cinders. Some of these, less burned, were reduced to coal and bitumen, whence farther variety has been given to the appearances of mineral substances. This revolution might have caused a change in the position of the axis of the globe, and a second retreat of the sea, which thus again covered the former continents, leaving its bed with the calcareous depositions which it had formed. The ocean, however, our author supposes, will change its situation no more, though of this he is by no means confident.

From the violent retreat of the sea, the various valleys and ravines were formed, and much of the earth deposited was hurried away in the torrent: from the situation of the mountains, with respect to these violent currents, our author explains many of the varieties of their form. The retreat also was so sudden, that various lakes were left behind, as well as many marine productions; particularly the sand, and the rounded stones: from the sea, we have said, the calcareous earth is supposed to be produced; and, from this, when burned, the quartz. From these substances, broken by the waves, the various compound stones are formed, which this

is of this kind in his opinion, and is very different from quartz, arising from the decomposition of marine animals. Other masses seem to be formed of these debris, scattered by the wind into new situations, and admitting new compositions.

Such is the outline of a doctrine opposed to the solid and judicious system of La Metherie. It may be called a mass of trifling and erroneous phantasies. A few scattered rays of sound philosophy pervade it; but they only serve to point out the deformities of a structure which they cannot be said to illuminate.

Theobald Leymour, ou la Maison Murée; par Charlotte Bournon-Malarme, Academicienne. Paris. 1799.

Theobald Leymour, or the Walled House; by Charlotte Bournon-Malarme, Academician. 3 Vols. Imported by de Boffe.

THIS is a French novel in the English fashion. A cruel husband, a pretended funeral, and a resurrection, are the ingredients; and sufficient interest is excited by a dutiful son, a persecuted beauty, and sundry wicked persons, male and female, unnaturally perfect in villainy. The philosophic character of one of these personages is curiously given in the following letter.

‘Come no more to *Honnslow*, my dear Dorick: the romance of my life draws towards its conclusion; and, for the sake of the little honour which you still retain, I advise you to avoid taking a part in it. The monster, the scoundrel, the infamous Johnson, after having received fifteen hundred guineas of the two thousand which we had drawn from that fool Pembroke, informed against me; and I have been apprehended. The charges against me are such that my identity cannot be a problem. The wretch has procured certificates from the different prisons where I have been confined both in England and in Ireland; he has proved that at Dublin I was sentenced to transportation, and at London to death. It was he who enabled me to escape in both those circumstances; but it would be impossible for me to prove this, as his face is different from what it was; he has the perfidious art of changing his figure as well as his character. With me all is finished; my life has been a tissue of pleasures and of pains, of good and evil fortune, of beneficence and inhumanity, of good actions and atrocities. My moral existence commenced at thirteen years of age: I am now thirty-three: during twenty years I

• have lived more than fifty. I have therefore no reproach to make to providence. Johnson was my lover; he becomes my executioner: this is one of the suite of oppositions which I have always met with on my way, and which made the essence of my character. My heart, formed by nature for tenderness, has never known real love. You who believed that you had made it sensible, had obtained from it only a feeble sentiment of preference, which was already declining towards insipidity. Do not regret me; fate, in separating us now, has only done what my inconstancy was on the point of doing. For the rest, Johnson has not served me so ill as he imagines: nothing in this world attaches me essentially, and it is almost indifferent to me whether I die sooner or later. Perhaps you think that the shame of the gallows affects my mind; undeceive yourself; I am far from being influenced by public opinion. I was born to be a philosopher; for I have never been the slave of prejudice. These principles were bequeathed to me by my father, who was a great man, and by my mother, who was a woman of fashion. Both had for their motto, *licentiousness and audacity*.

• I know not whether they will leave me here long: probably I shall be removed to London to suffer there. Far from engaging you to visit me in the metropolis, I beg you will not think of it; the connection would be injurious to you, and I should not set value enough upon your visits to repay you for the sacrifice with gratitude. I repeat it, forget me and lament me not. In possessing herself of my person, justice recovers her due. I have for some time belonged to her; and believe me when I assure you that I would not pluck a hair from my head to escape from her again. Persons in my situation usually manifest a repentance apparently very sincere, and make long and moving discourses to their accomplices, in which remorse has a fine effect. This is the mask of hypocrisy with which I shall not disguise myself. If vice continues to smile upon you, do not refuse her your caresses; but, if she treats you ill, turn your back upon her. A weak mind like yours may easily assume the exterior of virtue; and, as there are few connoisseurs who can distinguish the shadow from the substance, you will very soon find yourself classed among the *soi-disant* honest men. My character, strongly marked, has always made me regard with contempt those mixed beings to whom nature has neither given the courage necessary for vice, nor that which is indispensable for virtue; these are two extremes which, in spite of the proverb, are far from approaching each other, and for the practice of which one must be endued with a particular moral strength. Adieu,

Dorick; endeavour, by all means, to be happy: this is the sincere and disinterested wish of thy friend,

MATILDA RINGLEADER.

The English names in this novel are ridiculous.—Mrs. Ringleader, Mr. Morus, Mr. Sookwill, Mr. Dorick Oxfly, Suckey Marmonth, Mrs. Peterkins, Mrs. Shem the house-keeper, Head-break the robber, Tower-park, Dismal-place, and the delightful Mildew-lodge!

Vade-Mecum Medicum, in duas Partes divisum; quorum prior Nosologiam Cullinæam, Posterior Compendium Materiae Medicæ et Pharmacopœiæ exhibet; Auctore Gulielmo Tazewell, Virginiense. Paris. 1798.

A Medical Vade-Mecum, divided into two Parts; one exhibiting the Nosology of Dr. Cullen, the other a Compendium of the Materia Medica and Pharmacy; by William Tazewell, of Virginia. 12mo. 2s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS little compendium will be useful to the younger practitioner; and its execution, in general, merits our commendation. The nosology of Dr. Cullen is transcribed with few alterations: it certainly requires farther examination; and some improvements are seemingly necessary: these, however, are to be made by the cautious and experienced veteran; and the compiler has evinced his judgment in copying, without attempting any rash innovation. The name of Dr. Cullen, however, is irregularly latinised in the title: the proper word would have been *Cullenianam*.

The second part is the Pharmacopœia. What relates to the Materia Medica is chiefly taken from the last edition of the work of the London college. Some alterations are made in the nomenclature, and some additions to the systematic names of the vegetables, and the officinal ones of the minerals.

Some formulæ are added, apparently composed with too much haste. The bolus gambogiæ contains ten grains of gamboge, and half a drachm of cream of tartar. Dried squills are ordered in a dose of four grains, much too large, if the squill is carefully dried. On the other hand, the opiate is too much weakened by the addition of wax to the cumin plaster, and of oil to dissolve the opium and camphor, in the emplastrum opiatum. They may be easily melted by a gen- writer explains at length. Flint, found in calcareous strata,

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the heat, and form a good plaster, without either oil or wax. The 'julepum alkalinum,' a mere solution of fixed alkali, the 'mixtura vinosæ,' egg wine, and some others, are too trifling.—In the 'pilulæ rhobarbari cum sapone,' there is no occasion for the balsamum copaivæ. Soap, in its common state, will unite in pills with double the quantity of rhubarb here ordered, without any syrup.

Every medicinal substance is arranged in its class and order, nearly, if our recollection does not fail us, according to Dr. Duncan's system of Therapeutics; and afterwards the formulæ, as adapted to each class, are subjoined to the index: the etymology of each word is added.

Materialien zur Kenntniss des Russischen Reichs. Herausgegeben von H. Storck, &c. Zweyter Band. Leipzig. 1798.

Materials for the Knowledge of the Russian Empire. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Imported by Escher.

THESE materials consist of five parts. The first part contains the records of the submission of Courland to the late empress of Russia, in 1795; the second consists of annals of the empire from 1247 to 1263; in the third are the rules for the general establishment of schools; the fourth comprehends a short account of the commission for roads; and in the fifth are remarks on the marriages, births, and burials, in the year 1793, in fifteen provinces of the empire. The first part is curious, as containing the reasons of a people for withdrawing their allegiance from a republic, and transferring it to a despotic power. The confusions of Poland, and the infamous partition of that kingdom, naturally produced a change in the situation of Courland; and this apparently voluntary act was the effect of circumstances which left so small a district little more than the name of choice. The rules for the establishment of schools do great honour to the memory of Catharine; and, if they should be properly observed in the vast empire over which she presided, the Russians will gradually be formed into a civilised people. The improvement of the roads will add to these efforts; and the friends of humanity must rejoice at the prospect that this immense tract of country may be purified from gross ignorance and slavery, if the present and future sovereigns should follow the example of Catharine. The annals are of little consequence; and the accounts of marriages are not, we apprehend, kept with that regularity which would authorise any very exact deductions; but they afford proof of the general health of the country, and the great disproportion in the births of men to

those of women. From these tables we may infer, that Russia may keep a standing army sufficient to establish good order in every part of Europe without injury to its population, which doubles itself in about forty-nine years.

From the talents and industry of M. Storck, we may expect much accurate information concerning an empire which probably will produce, in the course of the next century, an extraordinary revolution in the affairs of Europe.

L'Art de Blanchiment des Toiles, Fils, et Cotons de tout Genre, par Pajot-des Charmes, Ancien Inspecteur des Manufactures. Paris. 1798.

The Art of bleaching Thread, Cotton, Linen, &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

THE most useful instrument in the bleacher's hand is known to be the oxygenated muriatic acid. The first particular account of it was given in the second volume of the *Annales de Chymie*, by M. Berthollet, the most scientific chemist that France has yet produced. He was followed by various authors, and particularly by M. Chaptal, in whose writings much information may be found.

The intent of the present work is not only to explain more particularly the process of bleaching, by means of the oxygenated acid, but to remove some difficulties which have been experienced in the application of M. Berthollet's rules to practice. In this volume his method is 'rendered more easy and more general, in consequence of some new discoveries.' The mode of discharging all the useless colour from printed cottons, as well as the most certain processes for bleaching silks and wool of every kind, and for whitening paper, are described at length. We made some efforts to analyse the latter part of this work; but it is so much connected with a particular description of the various processes, and depends, in every instance, so much on the plates, that we were constrained to relinquish our purpose. The plates, which are nine in number, are executed with clearness and accuracy, and (what is not common in French plates respecting manufactures) are rendered very intelligible by minute references.

The whole is well adapted as an elementary work for bleachers, linen-printers, paper-stainers, &c. and will, we doubt not, contribute to the proficiency of manufacturers in those branches.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT
OF
FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

IN a survey of the works lately published in France, we found the following productions not unworthy of our notice.

Mélanges, &c. A Collection of Astronomical Pieces, 8vo.—Statements and observations by Lalande, Delambre, Flaugergues, and other astronomers, are given in this volume.

Tableau du Regne Végétal, &c. View of the Vegetable Kingdom, according to the Method of Jussieu, by Ventenat, 4 vols. 8vo.—This is an useful work, and its utility is augmented by the plates with which it is accompanied.

Cours d'Etudes, &c. A Course of Encyclopædic Studies, or a new elementary Encyclopædia, by F. Pagés.—It is intended that this work shall consist of six volumes: of the first of these we cannot speak in very favorable terms, though it is superior to some recent works of the same kind.

Reveries, &c. Reveries on the primitive Nature of Man, by P. Senaucour, part I. 8vo.—A metaphysical work in which some acuteness is displayed.

Médecine, &c. Preservative and curative Medicine, general and particular, by N. F. Rougnon, 2 vols. 8vo.—Besançon.—This work is the fruit of fifty years of medical experience. That part of it which relates to the prevention of disease is worthy of general perusal.

Traité de l'Education, &c. A Treatise on the Corporal Education of Children, or practical Reflexions on the Means of procuring a better Constitution for the Citizens, 8vo. Paris.—This is a new and augmented edition of an useful work by M. Defeffartz.

Du Crédit Public, &c. On Public and Private Credit, and on the Means of answering the Demands of all Services, and of producing Reforms in the various Departments of public OEconomy, by A. Sabatier, 4to.—In this pamphlet are many good hints and just remarks.

Essai sur les Contributions, &c. Essay on the Contributions proposed in France for the seventh Year of the Republic, on those which exist in Great-Britain, and on public Credit in general, by Le-Coulteaux, 12mo.—A dissertation not injudicious.

Lycée, &c. The Lyceum, or Course of ancient and modern Literature, by J. F. La-Harpe, 8 vols. 8vo.—A series of lectures delivered at the Lyceum of Paris, and received with applause.

Essai sur l'Histoire géographique, &c. Sketch of the geographical, political, and natural History of the Kingdom of Sardinia, by Azuni:—the best account that we have seen of the island of Sardinia.

Recherches, &c. Historical Inquiries respecting Malta:—the work of a person who had good opportunities of information.

Journal d'un Voyage, &c. Account of a Journey into the Interior of Africa, undertaken in 1790, by James Van Reenen and other Colonists from the Cape of Good Hope, 8vo.—The object of this journey was to search for the crew of the Grosvenor Indiaman; but, after a journey of about five hundred leagues, the search was fruitless. The Kambonaas were discovered on this occasion by Van Reenen; and he represents them as very different from the Cafres in general.

Dictionnaire, &c. Universal Dictionary of commercial Geography, vol. I. 4to.—A performance of great labor and considerable accuracy.

Le Prisonnier, &c. The Prisoner in Spain, by N. Maffias.—This is a philosophical and sentimental survey of the provinces of Granada and Catalonia.

Voyages, &c. Travels of French Emigrants in Volhinia, &c. 2 vols. 8vo.—These travels not only extend over the Polish provinces, but over a great part of Asiatic Russia; and accounts of the Canary islands, and of Majorca and Minorca, are introduced.

Voyage à Canton, &c. A Voyage to Canton, followed by Observations on the Voyages of Earl Macartney and Van Braam.—M. Coffigny, in this work, undervalues the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, and magnifies that of the Isle of France; gives a sketch of the arts of the Chinese; and corrects the errors of some former accounts.

Les Contradictions. The Contradictions, a novel.—This piece is not uninteresting; but nature is not always followed by the young authoress.

L'Isle de Wight, &c. The Isle of Wight, or Charles and Angelina, a Novel, by A. Walkener.—The narrative is

pleasing; some of the characters are not ill drawn, and the votaries of sensibility will be affected by various parts of the performance.

Felix, &c. Felix, or the Adventures of a young Officer, 2 vols.—A work less recommended by purity of moral, than by vivacity of composition.

Cœlina, &c. Cœlina, or the Child of Mystery, 6 vols.—M. Dumesnil has followed nature in this piece, and exhibits a faithful picture of the pleasures and pains of life.

Les Foibleffes d'une Jolie Femme. The Weaknesses of a Handsome Woman, 2 vols.—A novel more entertaining than instructive, though not wholly destitute of a claim to recommendation in the latter respect.

NETHERLANDS.

Actes de la Société, &c. Memoirs of the Society of Medicine, Surgery, and Pharmacy, established at Brussels, vol. I. 8vo. 1797.—This volume contains some curious articles; but others are unimportant.

Redenvœring, &c. A Discourse delivered at the Opening of the Society of Medicine and Surgery, lately instituted at Antwerp.—Dr. Kok, an eminent physician, has in this discourse given a concise view of the medical science, and a sketch of the duties of a practitioner.

Dissertation, &c. A Dissertation on the Manner of making Uytzet, and on the Preference which it claims, as a salutary Drink, to various Kinds of Liquor, by P. E. Wauters, Ghent.—Uytzet is a kind of beer, which, though not very strong, is a palatable and wholesome beverage.

Recherches Historiques, &c. Historical, literary, and critical Researches into the Origin of Printing, by P. Lambinet, Brussels.—The writer is of opinion that the pretensions of Coster of Haarlem to the honor of being the inventor of the typographic art are not well founded; that Strasbourg was the cradle of the art, under the auspices of Guttenberg; and that Mentz witnessed its speedy improvement, from the hands of Fust and Schöffer. After the general history of the art, he particularly traces its rise and progress in the Belgic provinces.

GERMANY.

Grundriss der Physic, &c. An elementary System of Natural Philosophy, by H. F. Link, 8vo.—A compendium worthy of praise.

Theoretische Astronomie, &c. Theoretic Astronomy, 3 vols.—M. Schubert, by compiling this work, has performed an acceptable service to astronomical students.

D. Christ. Cramp, &c. Cramp's Treatise relative to the general Solution of decremental Equations of the first Order, 8vo. Erford, 1798.—the production of an able mathematician on a difficult subject.

Historische Schriften, &c. Historical Writings, and Collections of Documents, digested by J. A. von Schultes, 4to.—These documents relate to the history of Germany during the middle ages.

Miscellaneen, &c. Diplomatic and Historic Miscellanies edited by Arnoldi, 8vo.—An interesting publication.

Über den Unterricht, &c. On the Instruction of the People in the Penal Laws in Schools. 1799.—This treatise, by Tittmann, may be read with profit.

Briefe, &c. Letters on Juvenile Amusement:—well adapted to the intended object.

Probleme, &c. Problems of ancient and modern History, discussed by J. F. Roos, part I. 8vo. Gießen, 1798.—Professor Roos investigates the recorded deaths of the Philæni, two brothers; and he thinks that they really devoted themselves in the manner mentioned by Sallust. He afterwards examines the truth of the conspiracy imputed to the duke d'Aveiro, and concludes that it was a real plot against the life of the king of Portugal, rather than against his favorite Texeira, and that the Jesuits were not unconcerned in it.

Historische Übersicht, &c. Historical Review of the Politics of Great Britain and France, from the Conference at Pilnitz to the Declaration of War against the former Power, by Herbert Marsh, Leipzig.—Mr. Marsh endeavours to prove, that the British court could not, with any regard to honor or safety, avoid entering into the war.

Journal du Nil, &c. Journal of the Nile, or an exact and curious Description of Egypt. Hamburg, 1799.—M. Chateaufneuf, with the assistance of M. Maillet's work, has here given an accurate account of the Egyptian territories.

Die Gesundbrunnen, &c. The Salutary Springs, a Poem, in four Cantos, by V. W. Neubeck, M. D. folio, Leipzig, 1798.—This piece is both pleasing and instructive. The mineral waters of Germany are particularly noticed; and amusing descriptions and sentimental effusions are mingled with judicious medical advice.

Les Colons de toutes Couleurs. Colonists of all Colours.—The history of a new establishment on the coast of Guinea,

by M. de Texier, author of a work * respecting the Roman government, 3 vols, 12mo. Berlin.

The prince and princess of the establishment to which the title alludes, bear the names of Adrian and Zara. The former, having undertaken a voyage to the coast of Guinea, marries the heiress of a small principality; and, by his just, prudent, and beneficent administration, acquires the esteem and affection of those who are subject to his sway. Political hints worthy of attention are scattered through the volumes; and it appears, from the dedication, that the author had an eye to the king and queen of Prussia, when he delineated the two principal characters of his romance. The work is not destitute of merit; but the Africans and Frenchmen are not sufficiently discriminated.

Jella, &c. Jella, or the Morlachian Girl, 2 vols.—a pleasing production.

Rudolph von Werdenberg, 8vo.—This novel, by Augustus La Fontaine, is one of the best that have lately appeared. We cannot give an opinion equally favourable of the Family of Grodnow (das Haus von Grodnow), a novel recently published by Schmiedgen.

D E N M A R K.

Hieronimus Stridonensis, &c. Jerome of Stridon the Interpreter, the Critic, the Expounder, the Apologist, the Historian, the Doctor, the Monk. Copenhagen, 1797.—M. Engelstoft has here given a curious account of the life and writings of one of the most distinguished fathers of the Christian church.

S P A I N.

Diccionario elemental, &c. Elementary Dictionary of Pharmacy, by Hernandez de Gregorio, 2 vols. 4to. Madrid, 1798.—The author, with some ability, applies the fundamental principles of modern chemistry to the chief operations of pharmacy.

Teatro de la Legislacion, &c. A collective Display of the Legislation of Spain and the Indies, 28 vols. 4to.—A valuable repository of Spanish law.

Atlante, &c. The Spanish Atlas, 14 vols. 8vo.—A geographical, chronological, and historical account of Spain.

* See our XVIIth vol. New Arr. p. 538.

Antiguedades, &c. Ecclesiastical Antiquities of Spain, folio.—A production of no great merit.

Historia Natural, &c. The natural, civil, and geographical History of the Nations dwelling on the Banks of the Oronoque and in the neighbouring Districts, 2 vols. 4to.—Gumilla has here presented the world with a curious and interesting work.

I T A L Y.

Ricerche, &c. Mechanic and dioptric Inquiries into the Cause of the Refraction of Light, by A. Fufinieri, 8vo. Venice, 1798.—The author maintains, that the Newtonian laws of attraction are insufficient to account for the refraction of light, and that an explanation of this phænomenon can only be found in the resistance of refracting *media*.

Memoria, &c. A Memoir of Polidori respecting a contagious Typhus. Pisa.—This fever was treated with success; and it is remarkable that bark had no share in the cure.

Elementi, &c. Elements of Agriculture, 2 vols. Parma.—A work of merit and utility.

L'Observator, &c. The Florentine Observer upon the Edifices of his own Country.—This work, which is well executed, will be extended to eight volumes.

A REVIEW
OF
PUBLIC AFFAIRS

FROM

the Beginning of MAY to the End of AUGUST, 1799.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

THE prospect of a favorable termination of the war, which seemed to open in the spring of the current year, has not yet been obscured. The hopes then conceived do not merely subsist unimpaired, but have derived additional vigor from a continuance of success. The arms of the allies have prospered in various scenes of hostility; and the fame of Great-Britain, far from declining, has appeared with new lustre.

Before we recount the military or naval transactions of the last four months, we will notice the chief particulars of the parliamentary history of Great-Britain during that period.

An important bill was long depending for the suppression of those societies which were supposed to cherish seditious views. The debates, however, which occurred in its progress, were not very interesting. The London corresponding society, and several other associations, were declar-

ed by this bill to be seditious, and were therefore prohibited from meeting; and new restrictions were imposed on the debating societies.

A bill was introduced into the house of commons in May, for preventing the publication of Sunday newspapers, which lord Belgrave considered as tending to weaken the reverence for the Lord's day, and consequently as encouraging the propagation of impiety and infidelity. Mr. Wilberforce, as might have been expected, was equally hostile to the circulation of such prints; but the proposed bill was deemed unnecessarily restrictive by other members, who ridiculed the zeal of its advocates as being more puritanical than rational; and it was rejected by a majority of fourteen.

The desire of more effectually preventing the commission of treason induced both houses to concur in a bill brought forward by Mr. Abbot, for repealing those clauses of former acts which limited the forfeitures in cases of high treason to the lives of the pretender and his heirs. It was opposed with spirit by some members, but without effect, on plausible and popular grounds.

The slave trade was the subject of repeated discussion. Two bills were prepared; one for confining that traffic within certain limits; the other for regulating the conveyance of the slaves. Many witnesses were examined with regard to the trade; but, after various debates, the peers exploded the former bill, which was reprobated as impolitic and injurious by the duke of Clarence and lord Thurlow.

A message from the king, relative to a subsidiary treaty, was delivered to each house on the 6th of June. He had concluded, he said, an eventual engagement with the emperor of Russia, for employing 45,000 men against the common enemy; and, as his ally had already put this army in motion, he was bound to pay to that prince a monthly subsidy of 75,000 pounds, exclusive of preparation money, and of a farther payment which would not take place before the adjustment of a pacific negotiation by common consent. He at the same time requested to be enabled to

enter into such other engagements, and to take such measures, as might promote the interest of the queen of Portugal, rescue the Swiss from the French yoke, and expedite the general deliverance of Europe. On the following day, Mr. Pitt moved, that, in compliance with the royal request, 825,000 pounds should be granted without delay. Mr. Tierney stated some objections to the engagements contracted with the court of Petersburg, and expressed his doubts of the benefit of such a treaty: but the house agreed to the motion, and also to a proposition for a vote of credit to the amount of three millions. The minister then delivered a new statement of the national accounts for the present year. His hearers were surprised to find, that the estimates for the naval service were diminished from the sum mentioned at the beginning of the session to 12,250,000 pounds. The ordinaries of the army were also lessened; but the extraordinaries were augmented, and such other alterations were made in the supply as extended the charges of the year from the former statement * to 30,947,000 pounds. Adverting to the ways and means, Mr. Pitt elevated the growing produce of the consolidated fund from a million and a half to 3,220,000 pounds; but he was constrained to relinquish the hope of profiting by the tax upon income so largely as he had at first supposed; for, judging from the partial returns, he did not now expect that this impost would produce above seven millions and a half. It was necessary, he added, to extend the loan to fifteen millions and a half; and, in speaking of the terms on which it was adjusted, he boasted that he had concluded a bargain remarkably beneficial to the public. The new taxes requisite on this occasion had reference to sugar, coffee, and small notes.

The subject of finance leads us to the mention of some resolutions moved by Mr. Tierney on the 20th of June. He drew a comparison or contrast between the financial state of the nation at the commencement of the war, and that

* £.29,227,180.

which was at present observable. The first resolution imported, that, in January 1793, the public funded debt did not exceed 238,232,248 pounds, exclusive of long and short annuities amounting to 1,373,550 pounds; and that the operation of the rules established for the redemption of the debt had reduced it to 209,553,559 pounds. In the second and third resolutions, it was stated, that the addition of debt in the last six years raised the whole to 426,452,269 pounds. The unfunded debts, in 1793 and in 1799, were affirmed to be, respectively, above ten millions, and above seventeen millions. The future peace establishment, exclusive of some particular charges, could not, in the opinion of this speaker, be estimated at less than 25,614,225 pounds; and, indeed, for the first five years and a half of peace, the probable annual expenditure would, he thought, exceed thirty-three millions, without reckoning various contingencies which would swell the amount. Whether the nation would be able to bear a pressure so grievous, and answer demands so enormous, he might be allowed to doubt; and he could not justly be blamed for calling the attention of the house to points so momentous.

That the prospect was so gloomy as it appeared to Mr. Tierney, the minister was not inclined to admit; and he declared his willingness to discuss the subject. It was ordered that the resolutions should be printed; and, on the 1st of July, he submitted a series of resolutions to the house, which were debated on the 3d. We will not swell our pages with arithmetical details, as it will be sufficient to observe, that the essential parts of the two statements did not differ in any considerable degree.

Opposition was made to a bill for reducing the militia in some degree, and augmenting the regular force of the realm. It was contended, that the measures prescribed by the bill tended to destroy the constitutional force, by 'making the militia ballot a fund for the supply, and its discipline a drill for the accommodation of other *corps*, and by degrading its officers to the humiliating situation of commanding the miserable remnants of their regiments rejected

by recruiting serjeants of the line.' These and other arguments were urged without effect.

After a long session, a prorogation of the parliament was ordered on the 12th of July. The king then congratulated the two houses on the progress of the arms of his allies in Italy and Switzerland, applauded the spirit and energy of the Russian court, and complimented the wisdom of his parliament and the loyalty of his people.

The public, on the anniversary of the king's birth, witnessed a splendid and honourable display of the loyal zeal of the armed volunteers. About 8,000 men, belonging to the different associations of London and its environs, appeared in Hyde-park at an early hour, and were arranged in three columns, under the eye of the duke of York. When his majesty had entered the park, he proceeded slowly along the line; and when he had taken his station on an elevated spot, the whole body fired three rounds, and passed him in grand divisions. The ceremony ended with a salute of twenty-one guns.

The king having expressed a desire of another survey of the volunteers, the twenty-first day of June was fixed for that solemnity. He was received near Black-friars' bridge by the chief magistrate of the city, and by several bodies of his armed subjects. He proceeded to the bank, but declined to partake of a collation provided by the directors of that society. He rode to the India-house, surveyed the artillery-company (commanded by the prince of Wales in person) in Finsbury-square, and at length arrived at the house of the lord-chancellor, where he and a part of his family were elegantly entertained. He visited the Foundling-hospital; inspected some associations in the ground near that building, and others in Hyde-park; and, after a progress in which he was gratified with the loud effusions of popular joy, returned to the queen's palace, more pleased than fatigued. At the different stations, above 12,000 men were on that day assembled in arms.

For several months, extraordinary preparations were made for an expedition which was styled *secret*, but of which,

long before its particular object was announced, the destination was concluded to be for Holland. A great force was collected, and camps were formed in different parts of Kent; and, on the 13th of August, an embarkation of various regiments took place. The voyage was protracted by turbulent weather; but, on the 27th, the troops were put in motion for landing. The floops, brigs, and bomb-vessels, opened a well-directed fire to scour the beach; and the disembarkation was effected with little loss. A fierce engagement, however, followed; and it continued about ten hours. A considerable body of French and Dutch, near the village of Callanstoog, made repeated attacks on the invading army; but the latter fought with such vigor and perseverance, that the enemy at length retreated. Lieutenant-colonel Smollett was killed in the action; and two other officers of merit lost their lives, besides above fifty of the common men. The list of wounded exceeded three hundred and seventy.

Sir Ralph Abercromby, who ably sustained the character of commander in chief on this occasion, now resolved to attack the fort at the Helder Point; but the garrison, in the evening, thought proper to retire, after spiking the guns. The troops that took possession of the fort found in it a large train of excellent artillery. This success was attended with the capture of two Dutch ships of the line, many frigates, and some smaller vessels.

Vice-admiral Mitchel, in the hope of taking the whole Dutch fleet, passed the point on the 30th, continued his course along the Texel, and summoned rear-admiral Story to surrender the ships, and enter into the service of the prince of Orange. He did not long wait for an answer; for Story, alleging that the traitors whom he commanded refused to fight (and he perhaps was equally unwilling to risque a conflict), consented to deliver up the fleet, and declared himself and his officers prisoners of war. The ships which were thus withdrawn from the French interest amounted to twelve, eight of which were of the

The intelligence of this fortunate commencement of the

enterprise was received in Great-Britain with general joy; and sanguine politicians affected to foresee a speedy rescue of Holland from the French yoke. But others were apprehensive that a vigorous resistance might yet be made, and were strongly induced to doubt the probability of complete success.

Amidst the addition of so many large ships to our navy, occasional captures of small vessels are scarcely worthy of notice. In this respect, however, the British cruisers were not idle or unsuccessful.

IRELAND.

The Hibernian kingdom is slowly recovering from the effects of the late rebellion; and, in the mean time, the friends of the union are employed in promoting that very important object by argument and persuasion. Other means, more efficacious with persons of a mercenary disposition, will probably be employed.

After the completion of some judicious statutes, the parliament was prorogued on the 1st of June. The viceroy then expressed his hope, that the presence of the members in different counties might contribute to tranquillise those parts which were still agitated by the projects of the disaffected; and intimated that his majesty would receive the greatest satisfaction in witnessing the accomplishment of the proposed union.

FRANCE.

This republic has not the good fortune to remain long free from disturbance and convulsion. Insurrections in some of the provinces occasionally harass the government; and various disorders prevail.

The two councils had long reluctantly submitted to the tyranny of the directory; but the increasing unpopularity of the rulers of the state furnished an opportunity of shaking off the yoke. The new elections strengthened the anti-directorial party; and the public began to expect a change. On the 5th of June, the council of five hundred voted a message to the directory, reminding the latter of the duties of the executive department, of the propriety of preserving a good understanding with the legislative body, of the dangers which threatened the nation from foreign war, and of the distracted state of some parts of the French dominions. At the same time, a proclamation appeared, intimating the necessity of taking strong measures for the security of the republic, and assuring the people that the responsibility of the directory should be enforced. No answer being given to the message, another was sent; and the sitting of the council was declared permanent, till an answer should be returned. The council of elders following the example of the other assembly, the directory thought proper to send a reply on the 17th of June, making fair promises of constitutional conduct, which, however, did not appease the opposite party. Treilhard's directorial situation was declared vacant, as his appointment was said to be contrary to one of the articles of the constitution. The alleged reason of this expulsion was frivolous; for the charge was merely this, that the time prescribed by the constitution as the interval between the exercise of the functions of a representative of the people and those of a member of the directory, had not been completed when he entered upon the latter office. Gohier was now appointed a director; an obscure individual, who had formerly acted as minister of justice.

As the answer from the directory contained insinuations to the prejudice of the legislative body, some of the speakers in the council of five hundred complained of such arrogance in strong terms, and inveighed against the executive leaders. A decree of accusation against Merlin was pro-

posed to the assembly; and, with a view of securing the legislature against the machinations of its enemies, it was resolved that whoever should make any attempt injurious or hostile to that establishment or to an individual member, should be deprived of the protection of the law.

Alarmed at the rising storm, Merlin and La-Reveillère resigned their offices; but both disclaimed all consciousness of guilt, and declared that the only motive which prompted them to retire from the helm was the desire of removing all pretensions for jealousy and discord. Ducos and Moulin were gratified with the vacant dignities.

New laws were now enacted, tending to abridge the power of the directory, and to remedy various grievances; and an address was published to inspire the people with hopes of a favourable change not only in the internal exercise of the government, but in the conduct of the war and the management of foreign concerns. In this address it was said, that 'the people and the legislature had triumphed with the constitution; and that a new directory, animated by that patriotic courage which always presaged victory, had arisen from this political crisis.' 'The reins of government,' it was added, 'are in the hands of firm republicans. The people may trust to the two first national authorities, which will always respect the maxims of the constitution.' It was declared, that the reign of terror should cease, and that tyranny should no more prevail in France. 'Republicans! (these are the concluding terms of the address) we will discharge our duties with zeal and firmness: let your courage ensure external triumph, and internal liberty!'

It does not appear that the people have derived any great benefit from the success of the legislative body over the directory. A rigorous sway is still exercised; the armies are recruited by violent rather than by gentle means; and real freedom does not exist in the country.

The leading members of the directory, after the expulsion of Treilhard and the constrained resignation of his

two associates, were Barras and Sieyes. The latter had been chosen on his return from Berlin; and he acted as president at the time of the above-mentioned contest.

While these incidents occurred at Paris, the fleet which had sailed from Brest in the spring did not attempt any enterprise of importance. It had appeared in the neighbourhood of Cadiz, to the amount of above thirty ships; but the commander had neither ventured to attack vice-admiral lord Keith, who, with an inconsiderable fleet, offered to engage him, nor had taken any measures for joining a Spanish armament in that port. Proceeding towards Gibraltar, he was not long followed by the English. He formed a junction with the Spaniards; and, after a long parade, both fleets reached Brest in safety.

The French, in the mean time, continued the war in Italy and Switzerland. Moreau, after the battle of Pozzo, recruited his army by draughts from the garrison of Turin and other posts, and prepared for a vigorous conflict with the Austrians and the Russians, whose progress seemed to threaten the speedy expulsion of the French from Italy. After the loss of the greater part of the Milanese, he endeavoured to preserve Piedmont; but the capital of that principality was soon wrested from the hands of the republicans. It was no sooner summoned to surrender, than many of the inhabitants testified a desire of opening the gates; and, on the 27th of May, the allies took easy possession of the city, while the French retired into the citadel, from which they cannonaded the town, till a convention was adjusted for the cessation of such hostilities. At length, on the 20th of June, the citadel was given up, on capitulation, to the occupants of the town.

Field-marshal Souwaroff having divided his force by forming various sieges and blockades, and by seizing different posts, Moreau flattered himself with the prospect of retrieving the French affairs in Italy by a bold attack. He hoped to be joined by general Macdonald, when the latter

should have defeated two divisions which, he thought, the field-marshal would not be able to assist. Macdonald commenced the execution of this scheme by assaulting the corps of major-general Hohenzollern near Modena, and driving that division towards the Po; and he also compelled lieutenant-general Ott to abandon his post near Reggio. The latter, however, on the approach of Souwaroff with the grand army, repelled his assailants. On the 19th of June, the field-marshal made dispositions for an engagement with Macdonald; but he had not begun the attack, when the French poured a very heavy fire upon his whole line. They turned the right of the Russians at the village of Casaleggio, and obliged them to fall back; but the advanced guard assaulted their flank, and gained some advantage over them. They made repeated attacks upon the village; but their efforts were baffled by the persevering courage of the Russians. Upon the centre and the left of the confederates, assaults equally violent were made; and victory was long doubtful. In the evening, however, the whole French line, weary of contest, retreated beyond the Trebia. The Austrians and Russians pursued; and the rear-guard of the French, after a spirited resistance, surrendered during the flight. A check to which the Austrians were exposed at Tortona from the troops of Moreau, weighed very lightly in the scale against the important defeat of Macdonald, of whose army, it is said, nearly 20,000 men, in the course of a few days, were slain, wounded, or captured. On the part of the victors, the list of killed and wounded, according to the Austrian accounts, did not amount to 5,000. By this success, the Russian general retrieved his military reputation, which had suffered by operations and dispositions that were deemed injudicious.

After the reduction of various fortresses in the north of Italy, the strong citadel of Alessandria was taken in July. The more important post of Mantua was also surrendered to the allies. The blockade of this place was converted into a siege; and the trenches had not been opened above

a fortnight, when, on the 28th of July, a capitulation was signed by which the defenders became prisoners of war. This was a severe blow to the French, not only as it deprived them of one of the keys of Italy, but as it left a considerable army of besiegers at leisure to act against them in other parts.

The French were soon subjected to new misfortunes. Joubert, who succeeded Moreau in the chief command, was desirous of driving the allies from the walls of Tortona, and intended to attack them on the 16th of August; but, before he was prepared to act as the aggressor, the Austrians under general Kray assaulted his left on the 15th, while the Russians encountered the centre of his army. While he was animating his men to gallant exertions, he received a shot in the side and quickly expired. Moreau, who then appeared as a volunteer, resumed the command, and exerted his usual courage and activity. The Austrians were repelled by the valor and number of the foe; and their northern associates were forced back with very great loss. Kray made a second attempt to defeat the left division; and the centre was subjected to a renewed attack; but the French still defended themselves with vigor. General Melas now arrived with a reinforcement, and engaged the right of the republicans. His efforts were successful; and, pursuing his advantage, he seized the town of Novi. He was warmly supported by the Russians; and at length the confederates threw the whole French line into confusion. About 4000 men were made prisoners; and among them were four general officers. On both sides the slaughter was considerable.

In Switzerland, some engagements occurred between the French and the Austrians, though much time was lost in inactivity. In May, the former were dislodged from several posts; and from the 14th to the 22d, nearly 4000 of their number were made prisoners. They were driven from their conquests in the Grison territory, and were harassed, in several of the cantons, by insurrections of the

Swiss. General Massena, however, was not so discouraged as to neglect the duties of his station. On a chain of hills near Zurich, he made choice of an advantageous post, which he fortified with numerous entrenchments. The most interesting and decisive point of the position was on the Zurich-Berg; and here the right wing was stationed. As it was the opinion of the archduke Charles, that, if this post could be forced, the total defeat of the French army would be the consequence, lieutenant-general Hotze, on the 4th of June, was ordered to risk an assault. The French, however, defended the Zurich-Berg with such obstinacy, that it was found impracticable to force it. Both parties suffered considerably on this occasion. The archduke gave directions for another attack; but the enemy, unwilling to wait the assault, abandoned the entrenchments in the night. The Austrians then took possession of Zurich, while Massena retired towards the Reuss, and fixed upon another strong post, where he remained unmolested by the archduke.

While the French armies were employed in defending the cause of the republic, the legislative body prepared specific heads of charge against those directors who were supposed to have betrayed the interests of their country—against Reubell, la Reveillère, Treilhard, and Merlin. It was affirmed, that they had violated the rights of nations by giving orders for the invasion of Egypt, a country subject to the dominion of the Ottoman emperor, at a time when the French had no cause of quarrel with that prince; and by making war on the Swiss without a previous manifesto, and without sufficient provocation. They were accused of having infringed the sovereignty of the people, in the treatment to which they had subjected the Batavian, Cis-alpine, and Roman republics; of having usurped the legislative authority; endangered in various instances the external security of the state, as well as its internal safety; influenced the elections, and indirectly endeavoured to an-

annihilate the suffrages of the people; arbitrarily imprisoned, and illegally transported, many citizens; proposed to some military officers the arrest of several members of the legislature; and neglected the means of preventing robbery, extortion, licentiousness, and violence, in the conduct of the French towards the people on whom they pretended to bestow liberty.

It is doubtful whether the ex-directors will be punished for these offences. They have a strong party in both councils, particularly in that of the five hundred; and, as many are implicated in their crimes, their impunity is perhaps more probable than their punishment.

By the latest accounts respecting the internal affairs of France, we learn that the Jacobin clubs are again active in propagating disaffection, and extending the influence of their pernicious principles. In a report relative to these societies, drawn up by the minister of police, it was intimated, that, after the late change in the directory, associations of citizens were tolerated under the idea that they would tend to animate that public spirit which, from a variety of causes, had greatly declined; that the early debates of these societies had been restrained within the limits of prudence and decorum; but that their conduct had since been altered; that they had indulged animosities which had been suppressed for a time, had insulted the government, acted as incendiaries, and assumed powers not allowed by the constitution. The subject of this report occasioned warm debates in the two councils. Some of the members did not wish that the clubs should be checked; but others inveighed against them as highly dangerous to the government. The speeches in the principal society became at length so inflammatory, that Sieyes and Barras resolved to act with spirit on the occasion. In a message to the legislative body, the directors complained of the bold proceedings of the clubs, and declared their full determination of checking the career of all who neglected the strict observance of the maxims of the con-

stitution, or who endeavoured to introduce licentiousness and anarchy. The next day, the most obnoxious of the clubs received orders for a discontinuance of meeting; and the directorial will was enforced by military power.

NETHERLANDS.

Such of the inhabitants of Belgium as are adverse to the French cause eagerly wish success to the enterprise for the rescue of Holland, which, they think, will be followed by an attempt for the deliverance of the Belgic provinces. Papers have been lately distributed, tending to animate the hopes of the friends of the confederacy; but the administrative bodies studiously check such effusions of zeal, vigilantly endeavour to prevent insurrections, and make great preparations for the defence of the provinces.

HOLLAND.

Notwithstanding the rapine and tyranny to which the inhabitants of the Dutch provinces have been subjected, it does not appear that the generality of them are inclined to acquiesce in the return and re-establishment of the stadtholder. The invaders of Holland, though numerous and brave, will probably meet with strong resistance. Much blood has already been shed; and the loss of a much greater number of lives may be apprehended. The restoration of the independence of this republic, however, is so desirable, that the advocates for the war will not consider it as dearly purchased by the sacrifice of numerous victims.

GERMANY.

Though the empire is still, as well as the head of the house of Austria, at war with France, no considerable hostilities have recently taken place in Germany: but, as the French have crossed the Rhine near Mannheim, and have directed their course to the southward, we shall probably soon receive important intelligence from that quarter. It seems to be their immediate aim to draw the archduke from Switzerland.

The emperor has not been negligent in the inquiry into the murder of the plenipotentiaries at Rastadt: but no clear light has been thrown upon the affair. It is strongly suspected, that the assassination was the work of some emissaries of the Parisian directory, stimulated by a desire of branding the court of Vienna with the odium which such an act is calculated to excite. This, however, is not a very probable surmise, however great may be the delinquency of the rulers of France.

The king of Prussia persists in his resolution of neutrality; and the elector of Saxony follows the example of that monarch. Some of the inferior German princes are equally unwilling to have any concern in the war.

SWITZERLAND.

The expectations which were formed of a general insurrection of the Swiss have not been gratified. In the canton of Uri, indeed, the Upper Valais, and the Grison country, the enemies of the French acted with spirit, and endeavoured, not wholly without success, to facilitate the operations of the Austrians. But, in the greater part of

the cantons, either the people remained quiet, or only small bodies appeared in arms, without concert or union. On the other hand, a considerable number of Swiss, some from compulsion, others from choice, acted as auxiliaries of the French; and many of these combatants, it is said, fought with a ferocious fury which excited the astonishment of the Austrians, whom even the women encountered in several engagements with extraordinary animosity.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The naval preparations of the court of Madrid were less beneficial to the French cause than the republicans hoped, who concluded that some important enterprize would be attempted by the combined fleets. They may consider it, however, as a fortunate circumstance, that the fleets escaped capture or defeat.

The Portuguese are still under the apprehensions of an invasion; but the French are so fully employed in other quarters, that the court of Lisbon may for some time rest in peace.

I T A L Y.

The present state of this part of Europe is very different from the predicament in which it stood at the beginning of the year. The French were then masters of the greater part of Italy; but now they retain only an inconsiderable portion of it.

In our last political and military survey, we left the Neapolitan royal family in Sicily, where the French did not attempt to molest the fugitives. General Macdonald occupied Naples for some time, restraining the impetuosity and resentment of the discontented inhabitants, and

super-intending the new institutions imposed by republican violence. The people, however, were not deterred or prevented from taking arms in different districts, in the hope of expelling their oppressors. Ruffo, a cardinal of a bold and enterprising spirit, put himself at the head of a considerable body of the Neapolitans, and took every opportunity of harassing the invaders. He was even joined by many who had enlisted under the standard of the French, but who were disgusted at the arbitrary proceedings of their pretended deliverers. Frequent skirmishes, and occasional murders, manifested the mutual animosity of the two parties.

The misfortunes sustained by the French in the north of Italy having rendered it expedient for Macdonald to quit the Neapolitan territories, he drew off the garrisons of several towns, quitted Naples in April, and advanced towards the Ligurian state. Encouraged by his departure, the insurgents continued their efforts; and the assistance of the English and Russians animated their hopes. Hood, commander of the *Zealous*, attacked Salerno, and succeeded in the attempt. Other posts were also reduced; and the cardinal marched to Naples with an augmented force. Captain Troubridge of the *Culloden*, exchanging the naval for the military character, landed with a body of English and Portuguese, garrisoned the castles Ovo and Nuovo (which had been recently taken), and commenced the siege of Fort St. Elmo. The commanding situation of this fortress rendered the approaches difficult: but all obstacles were surmounted, and the works were nearly destroyed within nine days from the erection of the first battery. The commandant capitulated on the 12th of July. The garrison became prisoners of war; and the chief rebels were confined in the British ships. On the 21st, Troubridge made his appearance near Capua with a varied army, consisting of English, Portuguese, Swiss, Russians, and Neapolitans. Batteries were quickly opened; and, after a short siege, the place was surrendered on the 28th. Gaeta was

soon after reduced; and the whole realm was again subjected to the authority of Ferdinand, who acknowledged himself highly indebted, for this favorable change in his affairs, to the exertions of the gallant subjects of his Britannic majesty.

Lord Nelson, during these exploits, remained in the bay of Naples. Of a letter which he sent on the occasion, some passages may here be quoted, as worthy of notice. 'I most sincerely congratulate their lordships (*the lords of the admiralty*) on the entire liberation of the kingdom of Naples from the French *robbers* (for by no other name can they be called for their conduct in this kingdom). This happy event will not, I am sure, be the less acceptable from being principally brought about by part of the crew of his majesty's ships under my orders, under the command of captain Troubridge. His merits speak for themselves: his own modesty makes it my duty to state, that to him alone is the chief merit due.' With the censure of the French those who know it to be just will not be displeased; and the praise bestowed on the captain is given with delicacy.

The Roman republic was, at the same time, disturbed by insurrections. The French were dispossessed of some of the towns of that territory; but they are still masters of a considerable part of it. Pius VI. who governed this state before it was revolutionised, was seized by the French when they subdued Tuscany in the spring of this year, and conveyed prisoner to Briançon. Aged and infirm, the unfortunate pontiff has lately paid the debt of nature. He was not a man of splendid abilities; but he possessed some amiable qualities, and exercised his power with moderation.

In Tuscany, the people indignantly bore the republican yoke. Many of them rose in arms, invested several fortresses, and eagerly attacked divided parties of the French. On the 5th of July, they assembled in great force at Florence, and appeared with so firm a countenance, that the

republican troops retired into the forts, and, on the following day, marched towards Leghorn. The old magistrates now resumed their functions, in the name of the grand duke: the government was re-established without the least tumult or disorder; and all ranks of people testified their joy at the event.

The Tuscans, having defeated the French on several occasions, advanced towards the coast; and, as the Austrians had promised to re-enforce them, they did not despair of the quick recovery of the whole duchy. An order which was sent about this time to the commandant at Leghorn, for withdrawing all the troops of the republic from Tuscany, accelerated the accomplishment of the wishes of the people. That officer immediately capitulated; and Tuscany was completely evacuated by the French. A body of Austrians and Tuscans now marched towards Lucca to expel the intruders who had seized that town and subverted the government; and the French soon retired into the Genoese territory.

In speaking of the Italian states, we ought not to forget the extraordinary zeal of the Piedmontese in the cause of their exiled sovereign. For the purpose of restoring him, and harassing his rapacious and tyrannical foes, many parties of them were continually in arms. The checks which they experienced, and the severe punishment inflicted on those who were taken, did not operate as discouragements. They hovered about the posts of the republicans, intercepted their supplies, and molested them in various ways. Though some of their towns and villages were burned by the French, and the inhabitants treated with vindictive cruelty, they persevered in their opposition, and gave every assistance in their power to the confederates who arrived for their deliverance. When Turin had been recovered, they put to death some of the chief promoters of the French interests; and similar excesses, in other places, arose from the warmth of popular indignation.

T U R K E Y.

The Turks have not yet attempted to rescue Egypt from the tyranny of Buonaparte. For some months they were employed in preventing him from establishing his power in Syria and Palestine; but, as they have driven him from those territories, they will probably soon dispossess him of Egypt.

An army of French, reinforced with Jews, oriental Christians, and even with some Arabs, entered Palestine in the spring, and reduced several towns. At length they invested the Syrian town of Acra, or St. John d'Acra (the ancient Ptolemais); a place of little strength, the fortifications of which, compared with those of Europe, are wretched and contemptible. Before the commencement of the siege, Gezar, the pacha of the province, sent intelligence of the approach of the enemy to sir Sidney Smith, who, hastening with his squadron, captured seven vessels containing cannon and ammunition for the siege of Acra. The English gave great assistance to the Turks in improving the fortifications, and checking the advances of the besiegers. The latter were so warmly received in many assaults which they made upon the town, that they sustained considerable loss. In a siege which they thought would not long employ them, they were dangerously occupied for two months, and were then compelled to retire. Buonaparte, not deterred by the ill success of former assaults, peremptorily ordered another, at a time when the number of the dead threatened both parties with infectious diseases. While a letter to the pacha, proposing the burial of the bodies, was under consideration, a volley of shot and shells manifested the perfidy of the French general, who hoped to find his adversaries unprepared on the faith of a flag of truce. The garrison, however, ultimately repelled the assailants (on the 20th of May); and Buonaparte,

with the small remains of his army, fled towards Egypt. The merit of sir Sidney Smith, in this service, was extolled by the grand signor, and must entitle him to the applause of his countrymen.

R U S S I A.

The emperor Paul is now as eager to chastise and quell the French as any of his contemporaries. He supplies great armies for the deliverance of Europe, and employs his fleets in the same cause. He has declared war against the king of Spain; but it is improbable that he will have any opportunities of doing great injury to that monarch. He urges the king of Prussia, by argument and menace, to join the confederates; but his influence over the court of Berlin is not decisive.

S W E D E N.

His Swedish majesty, relinquishing in some measure his neutrality, ordered his minister at the diet of Ratisbon, in the month of May, to deliver a declaration from him, as duke of Pomerania, intimating that, as it was the duty of every member of the empire to furnish his contingent in a war in which that body was engaged, he was ready to supply such troops and money as he was bound to afford. This intimation was received with pleasure in the diet; but it does not appear to have had any effect in stimulating the neutral princes of the empire to a similar promise. The king, we are informed, acts with general propriety in his station. He rules with mildness and moderation, encourages the useful arts, and promotes the welfare of his subjects.

N O R T H - A M E R I C A.

The discussions between the Americans and the French have not yet been inflamed to a rupture. Internal discord,

however, seems to increase in the United States, at a time when unanimity is essentially requisite for securing the peace and prosperity of the republic.

WEST-INDIES.

No important intelligence has lately reached us from these islands, except from that of St. Domingo. Toussaint and Rigaud are still rivals for superiority. The British and American nations are endeavouring to establish an advantageous trade with the inhabitants of that island; but, if the competition of the chiefs should produce a war, the commercial negotiations will be suspended.

EAST-INDIES.

The revolution to which we alluded on a former occasion was briefly discussed in the house of commons in the last session. It appears, that Ali, the new nabob of Oude, gave great disgust and alarm to the English by his improper and arbitrary conduct; and, as he was not the legitimate offspring of the late nabob, they resolved to depose him, before he had fully established his power of injuring them. His subjects did not act in his behalf; and a prince from whom less danger was apprehended was quietly placed on the musnud.

The proceedings of the sultan Tippoo were of a more alarming nature than the conduct of the nabob. His preparations for war were diligently prosecuted; and the French who were in his service were encouraged and patronised. The governor-general insisted on the dismissal of the latter, and made some other demands to which Tippoo refused to accede. Suspecting that he depended on the aid of an army expected from Egypt, the council of Calcutta resolved to commence hostilities without delay.

In the settlement of Bombay, an army was levied to co-operate with that of Madras. Lieutenant-general Stuart, having ascended the Ghauts with the force of the western province, approached the enemy in March. On the 6th, an advanced brigade, conducted by lieutenant-colonel Montresor, sustained an attack from the warriors of Mysore, who, after an obstinate conflict, would probably have overpowered the Europeans and sepoy with whom they contended, if a fresh corps had not taken part in the action. The sultan's forces were at length repelled, above 2000 of his men being either killed or wounded. The victorious army suffered a trifling loss, the slain and the wounded not exceeding 150.

The army of Madras having reached Malavelly, an engagement took place on the 27th of March. It terminated to the advantage of the English, who were effectually assisted by some troops of the nizam. On the 5th of April, lieutenant-general Harris took his station near Seringapatam; and, being afterwards joined by Stuart, he carried on with great spirit the siege of that capital. The fire of the batteries having at length made a practicable breach in the walls, an assault was ordered on the 4th of May. To major-general Baird the direction of this important service was committed; and his courage and conduct on the occasion greatly redounded to his honor. That he might clear the ramparts to the right and left, he divided the force selected for the assault; and, while colonel Sherbrooke led one division, lieutenant-colonel Dunlop advanced with the other. Under a fire extremely heavy, the Europeans and sepoy 'crossed the rocky bed of the Cavery, passed the glacis and ditch, and ascended the breaches in the *fausse-braye* and rampart of the fort,' gallantly surmounting all the obstacles which arose from 'the difficulty of the passage and the resistance of the enemy.' When they had silenced the fire from the works, they were opposed by a *corps* which occupied the palace of Tippoo; but they at length gained possession of the whole town. Two of the sultan's sons now sur-

rendered themselves to the besiegers, and were removed to the camp. Proper measures for allaying 'the confusion at first unavoidable in a city strongly garrisoned, crowded with inhabitants and their property, in ruins from the fire of a numerous artillery, and taken by assault,' were not neglected by the victors.

Many of the chief officers of the Mysorean army lost their lives in defending the cause of their sovereign. As it was reported that the sultan was also among the slain, orders were given for inquiring into the foundation of the rumor; and, after a diligent search, the body of that prince was found near one of the gates, under a heap of his lifeless subjects. Due honors were paid to his remains, which were interred in the mausoleum of Hyder Ali.

The prince who thus lost his life inherited the ambition and the enterprising spirit of his father, possessed considerable talents, and was not deficient in courage or in fortitude. As he was a determined enemy of the British nation, his death is not regretted by those who wish for the prosperity of our Asiatic settlements. The seizure of his dominions, or the grant of his throne to a dependent prince, will greatly contribute to the security of British India.

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